

APPLETONS' HOME READING BOOKS

OUR NAVY IN TIME OF WAR (1861-1915)

MATTHEWS



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Appletons' Home Reading Books

EDITED BY

WILLIAM T. HARRIS, A. M., LL. D.

UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

DIVISION III

HISTOR Y



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1. Rear admiral—special full-dress.
2. Captain—full-dress.
3. Lieutenant—service uniform.

4. Sailor—full-dress.
5. Captain—marine corps.
6. Lieutenant—in overcoat.
7. Private—marine corps.

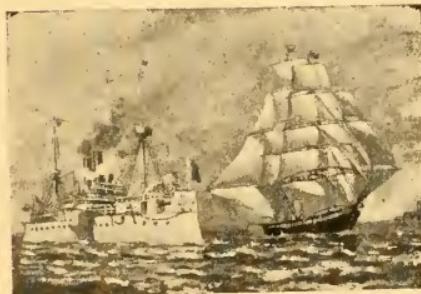
APPLETONS' HOME READING BOOKS

OUR NAVY IN TIME OF WAR

(1861-1915)

BY

FRANKLIN MATTHEWS



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No. 1.

TO

ANDREW E. WATROUS,

PATRIOT, STUDENT, AND TRUE JOURNALIST,

WHO IN THE NEWSPAPER RELATION

OF SUPERIOR TO SUBORDINATE FIRST STIMULATED

THE WRITER'S SPECIAL INTEREST IN NAVAL AFFAIRS,

THIS BOOK IS DEDICATED

BY ONE WHO PLACES HIGH AMONG THE RULES OF CONDUCT

THE DUTY NOT TO FORGET THOSE THINGS

WHICH SHOULD BE REMEMBERED.

INTRODUCTION TO THE HOME READING BOOK SERIES BY THE EDITOR.

THE new education takes two important directions—one of these is toward original observation, requiring the pupil to test and verify what is taught him at school by his own experiments. The information that he learns from books or hears from his teacher's lips must be assimilated by incorporating it with his own experience.

The other direction pointed out by the new education is systematic home reading. It forms a part of school extension of all kinds. The so-called "University Extension" that originated at Cambridge and Oxford has as its chief feature the aid of home reading by lectures and round-table discussions, led or conducted by experts who also lay out the course of reading. The Chautauquan movement in this country prescribes a series of excellent books and furnishes for a goodly number of its readers annual courses of lectures. The teachers' reading circles that exist in many States prescribe the books to be read, and publish some analysis, commentary, or catechism to aid the members.

Home reading, it seems, furnishes the essential basis of this great movement to extend education

beyond the school and to make self-culture a habit of life.

Looking more carefully at the difference between the two directions of the new education we can see what each accomplishes. There is first an effort to train the original powers of the individual and make him self-active, quick at observation, and free in his thinking. Next, the new education endeavors, by the reading of books and the study of the wisdom of the race, to make the child or youth a participator in the results of experience of all mankind.

These two movements may be made antagonistic by poor teaching. The book knowledge, containing as it does the precious lesson of human experience, may be so taught as to bring with it only dead rules of conduct, only dead scraps of information, and no stimulant to original thinking. Its contents may be memorized without being understood. On the other hand, the self-activity of the child may be stimulated at the expense of his social well-being—his originality may be cultivated at the expense of his rationality. If he is taught persistently to have his own way, to trust only his own senses, to cling to his own opinions heedless of the experience of his fellows, he is preparing for an unsuccessful, misanthropic career, and is likely enough to end his life in a madhouse.

It is admitted that a too exclusive study of the knowledge found in books, the knowledge which is aggregated from the experience and thought of other people, may result in loading the mind of the pupil with material which he can not use to advantage.

Some minds are so full of lumber that there is no space left to set up a workshop. The necessity of uniting both of these directions of intellectual activity in the schools is therefore obvious, but we must not, in this place, fall into the error of supposing that it is the oral instruction in school and the personal influence of the teacher alone that excites the pupil to activity. Book instruction is not always dry and theoretical. The very persons who declaim against the book, and praise in such strong terms the self-activity of the pupil and original research, are mostly persons who have received their practical impulse from reading the writings of educational reformers. Very few persons have received an impulse from personal contact with inspiring teachers compared with the number that have been aroused by reading such books as Herbert Spencer's Treatise on Education, Rousseau's *Emile*, Pestalozzi's *Leonard and Gertrude*, Francis W. Parker's *Talks about Teaching*, G. Stanley Hall's *Pedagogical Seminary*. Think in this connection, too, of the impulse to observation in natural science produced by such books as those of Hugh Miller, Faraday, Tyndall, Huxley, Agassiz, and Darwin.

The new scientific book is different from the old. The old style book of science gave dead results where the new one gives not only the results, but a minute account of the method employed in reaching those results. An insight into the method employed in discovery trains the reader into a naturalist, an historian, a sociologist. The books of the writers above named have done more to stimulate original research on the

part of their readers than all other influences combined.

It is therefore much more a matter of importance to get the right kind of book than to get a living teacher. The book which teaches results, and at the same time gives in an intelligible manner the steps of discovery and the methods employed, is a book which will stimulate the student to repeat the experiments described and get beyond them into fields of original research himself. Every one remembers the published lectures of Faraday on chemistry, which exercised a wide influence in changing the style of books on natural science, causing them to deal with method more than results, and thus train the reader's power of conducting original research. Robinson Crusoe for nearly two hundred years has aroused the spirit of adventure and prompted young men to resort to the border lands of civilization. A library of home reading should contain books that incite to self-activity and arouse the spirit of inquiry. The books should treat of methods of discovery and evolution. All nature is unified by the discovery of the law of evolution. Each and every being in the world is now explained by the process of development to which it belongs. Every fact now throws light on all the others by illustrating the process of growth in which each has its end and aim.

The Home Reading Books are to be classed as follows:

First Division. Natural history, including popular scientific treatises on plants and animals, and also de-

scriptions of geographical localities. The branch of study in the district school course which corresponds to this is geography. Travels and sojourns in distant lands; special writings which treat of this or that animal or plant, or family of animals or plants; anything that relates to organic nature or to meteorology, or descriptive astronomy may be placed in this class.

Second Division. Whatever relates to physics or natural philosophy, to the statics or dynamics of air or water or light or electricity, or to the properties of matter; whatever relates to chemistry, either organic or inorganic—books on these subjects belong to the class that relates to what is inorganic. Even the so-called organic chemistry relates to the analysis of organic bodies into their inorganic compounds.

Third Division. History, biography, and ethnology. Books relating to the lives of individuals; to the social life of the nation; to the collisions of nations in war, as well as to the aid that one nation gives to another through commerce in times of peace; books on ethnology relating to the modes of life of savage or civilized peoples; on primitive manners and customs—books on these subjects belong to the third class, relating particularly to the human will, not merely the individual will but the social will, the will of the tribe or nation; and to this third class belong also books on ethics and morals, and on forms of government and laws, and what is included under the term civics, or the duties of citizenship.

Fourth Division. The fourth class of books includes more especially literature and works that make known the beautiful in such departments as sculpture, painting, architecture and music. Literature and art show human nature in the form of feelings, emotions, and aspirations, and they show how these feelings lead over to deeds and to clear thoughts. This department of books is perhaps more important than any other in our home reading, inasmuch as it teaches a knowledge of human nature and enables us to understand the motives that lead our fellow-men to action.

PLAN FOR USE AS SUPPLEMENTARY READING.

The first work of the child in the school is to learn to recognize in a printed form the words that are familiar to him by ear. These words constitute what is called the colloquial vocabulary. They are words that he has come to know from having heard them used by the members of his family and by his playmates. He uses these words himself with considerable skill, but what he knows by ear he does not yet know by sight. It will require many weeks, many months even, of constant effort at reading the printed page to bring him to the point where the sight of the written word brings up as much to his mind as the sound of the spoken word. But patience and practice will by and by make the printed word far more suggestive than the spoken word, as every scholar may testify.

In order to bring about this familiarity with the

printed word it has been found necessary to re-enforce the reading in the school by supplementary reading at home. Books of the same grade of difficulty with the reader used in school are to be provided for the pupil. They must be so interesting to him that he will read them at home, using his time before and after school, and even his holidays, for this purpose.

But this matter of familiarizing the child with the printed word is only one half of the object aimed at by the supplementary home reading. He should read that which interests him. He should read that which will increase his power in making deeper studies, and what he reads should tend to correct his habits of observation. Step by step he should be initiated into the scientific method. Too many elementary books fail to teach the scientific method because they point out in an unsystematic way only those features of the object which the untutored senses of the pupil would discover at first glance. It is not useful to tell the child to observe a piece of chalk and see that it is white, more or less friable, and that it makes a mark on a fence or a wall. Scientific observation goes immediately behind the facts which lie obvious to a superficial investigation. Above all, it directs attention to such features of the object as relate it to its environment. It directs attention to the features that have a causal influence in making the object what it is and in extending its effects to other objects. Science discovers the reciprocal action of objects one upon another.

After the child has learned how to observe what is essential in one class of objects he is in a measure fitted to observe for himself all objects that resemble this class. After he has learned how to observe the seeds of the milkweed, he is partially prepared to observe the seeds of the dandelion, the burdock, and the thistle. After he has learned how to study the history of his native country, he has acquired some ability to study the history of England and Scotland or France or Germany. In the same way the daily preparation of his reading lesson at school aids him to read a story of Dickens or Walter Scott.

The teacher of a school will know how to obtain a small sum to invest in supplementary reading. In a graded school of four hundred pupils ten books of each number are sufficient, one set of ten books to be loaned the first week to the best pupils in one of the rooms, the next week to the ten pupils next in ability. On Monday afternoon a discussion should be held over the topics of interest to the pupils who have read the book. The pupils who have not yet read the book will become interested, and await anxiously their turn for the loan of the desired volume. Another set of ten books of a higher grade may be used in the same way in a room containing more advanced pupils. The older pupils who have left school, and also the parents, should avail themselves of the opportunity to read the books brought home from school. Thus is begun that continuous education by means of the public library which is not limited to the school period, but lasts through life.

W. T. HARRIS.

P R E F A C E.

THE deeds of the navy of the United States have been ever glorious. That part of them related in these pages, covering the period from 1861 to 1915, has been selected not because there was greater glory in the deeds of the American navy in the civil war and in the war with Spain than in the earlier days of the service, but chiefly because the types of vessels and of guns now in general use throughout the world were begun and developed in part in the American civil war. The armor, the turreted battle ship, the swift cruiser, the rifled guns of to-day were the direct outgrowth of the civil war. The wooden war ship and the smooth-bore guns were doomed as the result of that conflict. The battle ship of 1915 is simply the turreted monitor and the armored battle ship of 1863 combined and improved. The men of to-day, though just as brave, are no whit braver than the men of the Revolutionary war or the War of 1812.

Not all the details of the work of the navy in the years covered by this book are given here. An at-

tempt has been made to tell the story of the chief events, and to bring out their significance, especially for young readers. The book is intended also to interest those who never grow old or feeble in patriotism, and who are proud of American prowess on the seas, whether they be sixteen or three-score and ten, or even older.

The terms North and South are used instead of Federal and Confederate because they are simpler, and because they are in common use in speech regarding the civil war.

The South had almost no navy in that war. So far as it did have one, it was creditable to the zeal and courage of those who fought in its war ships. What greater compliment can be paid to the South than to say that the men in its ships fought with true American bravery to the last?

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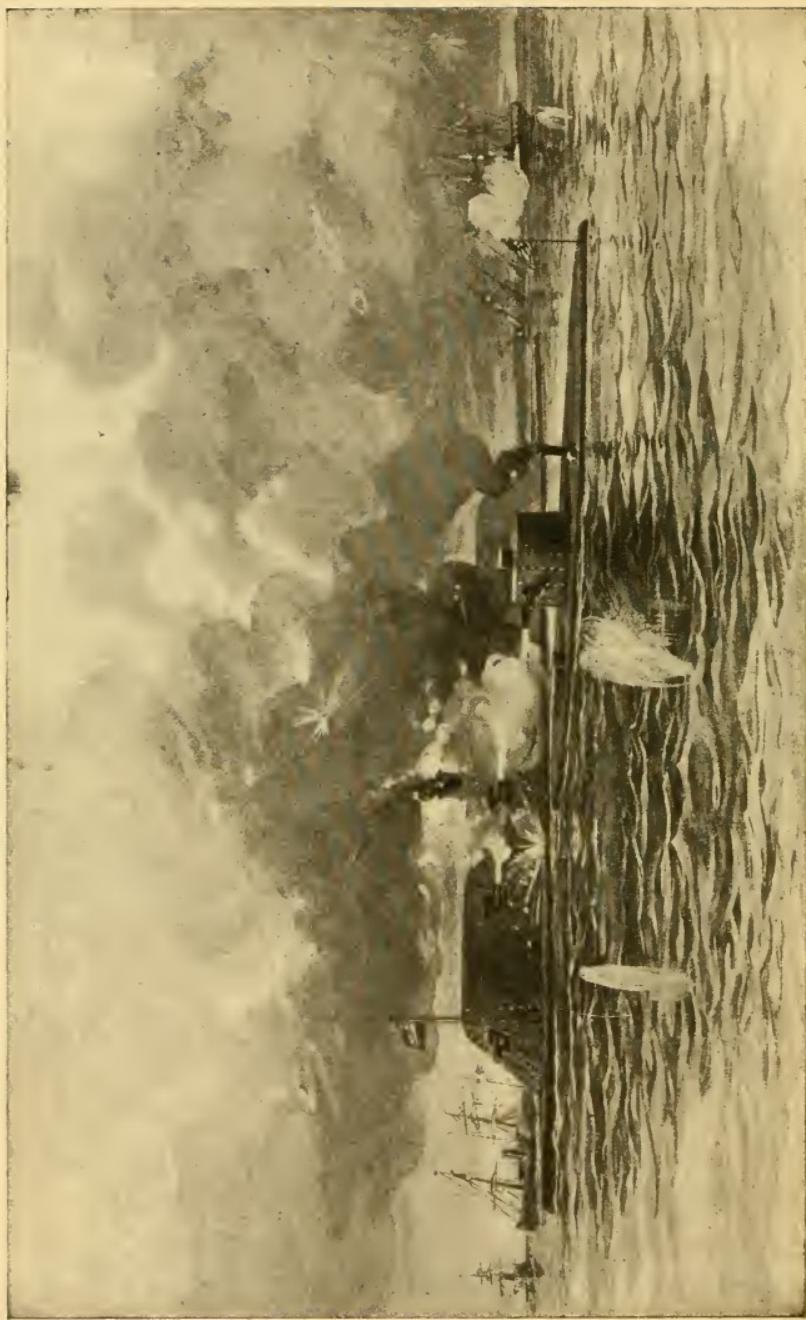


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Fight between the Monitor and the Merrimac.

OUR NAVY IN TIME OF WAR. (1861-1915.)

CHAPTER I.

THE FAMOUS MONITOR.

ON the night of Friday, March 7, 1862, there was steaming south, along the Atlantic coast, between the capes of the Delaware and the capes of the Chesapeake, a vessel such as had never been seen on the seas before. That vessel was a war ship—the famous Monitor. There was a violent storm during the night, and that the boat did not sink was a great wonder. She was a curious vessel. She was simply a floating steam raft, with a round iron box upon it in the center and a square little hut, built something like a log house, in front of the box. The smokestack stuck up back of the round box, and near that was another pipe that looked something like a smokestack; it was used to supply fresh air to the crew down in the raft. The vessel had been built in less than four months. Long before she started from New York harbor, where she was built, many persons declared that she would sink as soon as she got into rough water.

The North and the South had been at war for nearly a year, and it was known that the South was preparing an ironclad vessel at Norfolk which was expected to destroy the war ships of the North that had been stationed at Fort Monroe, just inside Chesapeake Bay, and only a few miles from Norfolk. The use of ironclads in war at that time was new. European nations were just beginning to build them, but they were of old-fashioned models. When it became known that the South was to have an ironclad, the North decided that it also must have one to save its ships from destruction, and to protect its large cities, such as New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and its many seaport towns, from being placed at the mercy of a vessel which could not be sunk by any cannon balls of those days. Therefore the Monitor was built.

It was feared that the South would send some ships up the Potomac to try to capture Washington, and the Monitor, before she was really finished or tried thoroughly, was sent south to go up the Chesapeake and the Potomac, to protect the national capital. She started out from Sandy Hook, in New York harbor, at eleven o'clock of the morning of Thursday, March 6, 1862. The weather was pleasant, the sea smooth, and to the surprise of nearly all on board, the new war ship got along very well. She was towed by a tugboat called the Seth Low, and was escorted by two small steamers. Thursday night all went well,

but on Friday morning the wind became stronger and drove the waves over the flat decks of the Monitor in such quantities as to alarm those inside the boat. The hatches over the openings in the decks leaked, and the water poured down into the vessel in great quantities. The waves broke against the little square house on the deck which was used as a pilot house, and the water ran in through the peep holes and several times drove the men at the wheel away from their work of steering. The water also washed against the round box on top of the raft, in which were two guns on which the fate of the nation seemed to depend. The round box turned on a pivot, and was supposed to fit tightly to the deck. Where the deck and the box joined there had been packed a lot of oakum to keep the water from leaking through. This oakum was soon washed away, and the sea poured through the opening and down into the ship.

The vessel pitched and rolled, and when night came it seemed as if she would go down. The waves grew higher and higher, and now and then, when they broke on her decks, some of the water dashed down the smokestack, and soon the boiler fires were in danger of being put out. That meant, of course, that the ship would be unable to remain afloat, because she could not be steered and the water could engulf her easily.

But there was more trouble and danger in store

for the brave men who had volunteered to take the Monitor to sea. The water broke over the pipe through which fresh air was drawn down into the ship, and this disabled the machinery that was used to control the air supply. The water was rising rapidly in the fire room, and there was no fresh air to make the fires burn brightly. Gas from the engines and furnaces was filling up the place so that it was dangerous to stay there. Two engineers rushed in to try to stop the leaks and they were overcome by gas, and had to be dragged out to save their lives. The steam pumps were started, but the fires were so slow that steam could not be had to use for pumping. Hand pumps were then tried, but the water came in faster than the men could get it out. Then the men tried to bail out the boat, but this was also a failure, because the ship rolled and tossed, and the water from the buckets was spilled out before it could be passed up the ladders and emptied outside.

From the forward part of the ship there came dreadful noises throughout this long night. The deck of the Monitor stuck out a long distance from the hull in front and back, and under the extended front there was a hole made which was called the anchor well. The anchor was not carried in plain sight, as in these days, but was underneath the deck, and when not in use it was pulled up and fastened in this hole or well. As the Monitor fell with the waves, a large quantity

of air was caught in this well underneath the deck, and when it was compressed by the water as the Monitor plunged underneath, it made a mournful noise. Some of the crew said that it sounded like awful screams, and one of them said the noises were like "death groans of twenty men."

The men on the tugboat Seth Low could be of no help to those on the Monitor. As the noises continued through the night, and the ship plunged and rolled dreadfully, and as the water dashed about inside the hold, almost putting out the fires and making the place dangerous for the crew, it seemed as if those who declared that the strange craft would never stand a rough sea were right, and that the men who were willing to risk their lives in this vessel must surely be drowned. The wind was what is called "off shore," and it was thought that if the tugboat could take the Monitor in toward the coast the water would be smoother and the vessel might live. This was done, and as the tugboat and the Monitor approached the shore it was found that the water was smoother. The wind then began to go down, but toward the morning it became stronger, and once more it seemed as if the ship must be lost. This time the steering gear got out of order. All hands were summoned to fix it, and after working from two to three hours it was repaired, so that once more the ship could be steered properly.

When daylight came on Saturday, March 8, 1862, the sea had gone down, and the Monitor was well along in her journey toward the Chesapeake. That was one of the most fortunate things for the United States that ever happened in its history, for although one can not tell what would have been the result had the Monitor been lost, it is known that she really saved the navy from destruction. About four o'clock in the afternoon, as the tugboat and the Monitor were going south, sounds of heavy cannonading were heard across the waters from the neighborhood of the capes of Chesapeake Bay. Soon a pilot came aboard and said that the South's great ironclad, the Merrimac, had come out that day and had gone up to the neighborhood of Fort Monroe, on the stretch of waters where the James River meets the Chesapeake, and which is called Hampton Roads. He said the Merrimac had destroyed two of the finest ships in the United States navy, had killed many men, and the next day, Sunday, March 9th, she would probably finish up the four other ships of the North lying there.

It was not until nine o'clock on Saturday night that the Monitor reached the United States vessels in Hampton Roads, and learned the result of that dreadful day's work. The men on board the Monitor began to prepare at once for battle the next day. They had had no sleep since they had left New York, and very little food, and it was not known whether

their ship could do real fighting. The news of the loss of the Northern ships had spread all over the country. President Lincoln and his cabinet members were very much cast down when they met the next morning. So serious was the situation that Mr. Stanton, the Secretary of War, said:

“The Merrimac will change the whole course of the war; she will destroy every naval vessel; she will lay all the cities on the seaboard under contribution. I have no doubt that the enemy is this minute on her way to Washington, and it is not unlikely that we shall have a shell or a cannon ball from one of her guns in the White House before we leave the room.”

But this was not to be. The Monitor was fighting, probably at that very minute on that Sunday morning, and the South’s great ironclad, the Merrimac, had met her match.

To understand the nature of the battle and what it meant, one should go back fully a year. One of the greatest navy yards in the United States was that at Norfolk. Before the war started there were at this yard more than two thousand cannon, of which three hundred were splendid big guns, called Dahlgren guns. There were there more than one hundred and fifty tons of powder and a great lot of supplies for ships. The South wanted all these supplies. The State of Virginia had not yet left the Union, although other States had. The commandant of the

Norfolk Navy Yard was Commodore McCauley. He was old and under the influence of Southern officers, who wanted to get control of the cannon and other articles to be used in war. Several United States war ships were there, including the steam frigate Merrimac, the sailing sloops of war Cumberland, Germantown, and Plymouth, the brig Dolphin, and six other sailing ships, including the famous United States, all of which were not of much use. Nevertheless, the value of the ships and stores was estimated at fully five million dollars.

The Navy Department became very anxious over the property there, and it was decided to try to get the frigate Merrimac away from the yard. The machinery of the vessel was put in order, steam was raised, and the ship was ready finally to sail away, but Commodore McCauley decided to hold the vessel until the next morning. This was in the latter part of April, 1861. The next morning he decided to hold the vessel a little longer, because he did not want to offend the people of Virginia by sending the ship away. Then there arrived from Washington the steamer Pawnee, under Captain Paulding, with a regiment of Massachusetts soldiers on board. Paulding had orders to take the Merrimac and other ships away from the yard if he could, and if he could not, to destroy the ships and as much of the property as he could. Southern troops had been forming about Norfolk as if about

to attack, and there was nothing to be done except to destroy the ships and property. The Pawnee did manage to tow the Cumberland away from the yard. One evening was spent in preparations to destroy the ships and buildings. Commodore McCauley went to bed ignorant of the attempt that was to be made. He thought the Pawnee had come there to protect the place. A little after four o'clock in the morning the signal was fired, and in a few minutes the ships and other property were in flames. The dry dock was not destroyed, because the fuse did not light the powder that had been placed in it. The magazine with its shells and powder had already been seized by the Southern men, and in the hurry of setting fire to the yard and of getting away there was little burned beyond the ships and several buildings.

The vast stores passed into the hands of the South. The Merrimac and other vessels burned to the water's edge and sunk. It was found afterward that the engines of the Merrimac were not damaged seriously, and it was because of that fact that the South and North met in the first battle between ironclads with the Monitor on one side and the Merrimac on the other, on March 9, 1862, nearly a year later. The South had a very able naval officer, named John M. Brooke, who was formerly a lieutenant in the United States navy. He was ordered to prepare plans for an ironclad. The South had very little iron and few

factories, and it was a hard task to build such a vessel. The wreck of the Merrimac was raised, and it was found that the engines were uninjured. That was a piece of good fortune for the South. Its men built on the hull of the ship a sort of house, with sloping sides of pine and oak, two feet thick. Iron plating, four inches thick, covered the outside. There was a plating of iron one inch thick along the hull, on which this deck house rested. This iron plating extended two feet below the surface of the water. There were windows in the deck house through which the vessel's ten guns could fire. Six of these guns were nine-inch Dahlgrens, and four were rifles designed by Lieutenant Brooke, which were said to be the best guns known at that time.

The Merrimac drew twenty-two feet of water, had a crew of three hundred and twenty men, and was very hard to steer. The Southerners called her the Virginia, but the name Merrimac always clung to her. The work of making her into an ironclad began in June, 1861. At this time the North had done nothing about building an iron war ship. In August Congress set aside fifteen hundred thousand dollars for this work. It was not until September 8th that a decision was made as to what to do with this money. A board of naval officers decided that three ships should be built, and one of them should be an ironclad with a revolving turret, according to a design

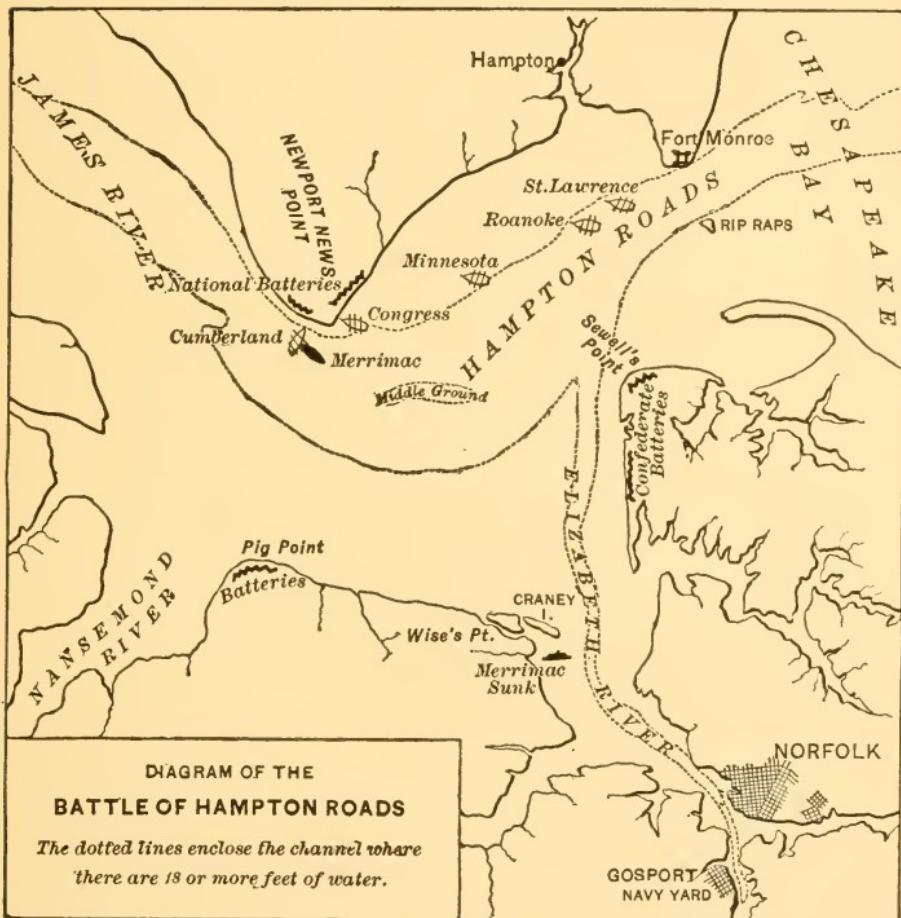
suggested by John Ericsson, a noted Swedish inventor, who had come to this country to live. It was not until October 4, 1861, that the contract for the Monitor was made. She was to be called the Monitor to warn the South that she was to be dreaded, and also to give notice to England that her navy was really out of date, and that a great change was about to take place in war ships.

Three gangs of men worked eight hours a day each on the ship, and she was launched on January 30, 1862. The hull was one hundred and twenty-four feet long, thirty-six feet wide, and twelve feet deep, and over the hull was laid a superstructure which extended beyond and made a vessel one hundred and seventy-two feet long and forty-one and a half feet wide. The deck stuck out over the hull as the deck of a ferryboat does in these days. The deck was to be only one foot above the water line. In the center of the ship rose the turret. It was nine feet high, twenty feet in diameter, and eight inches thick. The thickness was made up of eight one-inch iron plates. Inside were two eleven-inch smooth-bore guns. There were iron shutters for the portholes to keep out shot while the guns were being loaded. There was a thickness of five inches of iron along the sides of the low deck. The smokestack was arranged to be taken down while the vessel was in action. In the front of the ship was the square pilot house, with scarcely

room enough for three men to stand in it. The guns could not be shot in the direction of the pilot house, because the shells would kill those inside and sweep it away. There was only a speaking-tube connection between the pilot house and the turret.

Word reached the North that the Merrimac was nearly done, and on February 19th the Monitor was sent hurriedly from the place in Greenpoint where she was built to the Brooklyn Navy Yard; a week later she was put into commission and tried in the East River. Her steering gear was out of order, however, and it was not known whether she would be a success. After another week the vessel went as far as Sandy Hook under her own steam. Then came orders to hurry her South, and on Thursday, March 6th, as has been told, she started on her perilous journey. The Monitor was under command of Lieutenant John Worden, who had done some notable work at Pensacola earlier in the war, and had been imprisoned at Montgomery, Ala., because of it. He was really sick when he volunteered and was selected to command the Monitor. Lieutenant S. Dana Greene volunteered to go with him as executive officer. Assistant-Engineer Isaac Newton was at the head of the four engineers, and Chief-Engineer A. C. Stimers was sent along to watch the machinery and to make a report about it. The crew consisted of fifty-eight men.

Meanwhile the Southern men at Norfolk were hurrying up the Merrimac. When she started out from Norfolk on the morning of March 8, 1862, the workmen were still busy on her, and some of them were



put ashore after the vessel had got in motion. She was under the command of Captain Franklin Buchanan, formerly of the United States navy, and a very brave man. She had a green crew on her, and had never

steamed a mile after being fixed over, and few of the officers had ever met one another. She could go only about four knots an hour, and when she started down the river from Norfolk to Hampton Roads on that Saturday morning to destroy the Northern fleet, there was very little fear on those ships that anything serious would happen. At anchor in Hampton Roads near each other and off Newport News were the frigate Congress, which carried fifty guns, and the sloop of war Cumberland, carrying twenty-four guns, which the Pawnee had saved from the Norfolk Navy Yard nearly a year before. Farther down Hampton Roads, toward Fort Monroe on the Chesapeake Bay, were the old frigate St. Lawrence and the two modern steam frigates, Roanoke and Minnesota, former sister ships to the Merrimac. The Northern officers had begun to think the Merrimac was a failure, and when some one saw the smoke coming down the river, he cried out:

“Here comes that thing!”

It was a beautiful morning, and as the Merrimac, escorted by several small gunboats, came out in Hampton Roads, all the Northern ships cleared for action and made preparations for a fight. The Congress and Cumberland were sailing ships and remained anchored. The Merrimac came on slowly and steadily, and about one o’clock in the afternoon the Congress and the Cumberland began to shoot at her

at long range. The Northern batteries on shore also took part, but it was seen that the shells did no damage whatever, and simply glanced off the sides of this new monster of war. When the Merrimac was very close to the two ships, the bow port of the Merrimac was opened and she fired at the Cumberland. The shot killed or wounded most of the crew at one of the Cumberland's guns near the stern. Then the Merrimac started for the Congress. Captain Buchanan, of the Merrimac, had a brother who was paymaster on the Congress, but that made no difference in the captain's desire to sink the Congress. He fired a broadside into her which did great damage, killing a large number of men. Then the Merrimac made for the Cumberland, so as to sink her by ramming. The men on the Congress, thinking that the Merrimac had been afraid to attack them further, sprang into the rigging and cheered as the ironclad seemed to run away; but it was the wrong time to cheer. The Cumberland shot at the Merrimac in vain. The Merrimac struck the Cumberland a terrific blow in the forward part of the ship, after which the Merrimac backed off, leaving part of her prow sticking in the Cumberland. The Cumberland tipped far over and then righted herself, but the blow was mortal. Water rushed in the open sides of the ship and she was doomed. The brave crew kept fighting desperately. Every time the Merrimac fired into her a dozen or more of the men

at the guns would be killed. The Merrimac steamed up close beside her again, and her officers called upon Lieutenant George W. Morris, who was in command of the Cumberland on that day, in the absence of Captain Radford, to surrender and save a great loss of life. Morris replied:

“Never! I’ll sink alongside.”

Ammunition was brought up to the dry places on deck, the wounded were brought up also, and as the ship sank slowly the men kicked off their shoes, threw away their extra clothing, and fired the cannon until the water fairly engulfed them all. Not until it was seen that the ship would go down within five minutes did some of those who had survived in the fight take to the boats, dragging the wounded with them.

There were three hundred and seventy-six men on board of the Cumberland when that fight began, and of those one hundred and seventeen were lost and twenty-three were missing. After the vessel went down her masts stuck above the water, and the old flag floated in plain sight.

Buchanan then turned again toward the Congress. Lieutenant Joseph B. Smith was in command of that vessel. He saw the fate of the Cumberland, and he ran his boat aground so that the Merrimac could not ram her. The Merrimac came within two hundred yards of the stern of the Congress, where broadside after broadside was poured into her, to which the

stranded ship could reply with only two small guns. Soon Lieutenant Smith was killed. Every time a shot from the Merrimac struck the vessel there was awful slaughter. After keeping up the fight for more than an hour, Lieutenant Pendergrast, who was then in command, hoisted a white flag and surrendered. Some of the batteries on the shore fired on the Southern men who were taking charge of the vessel after the surrender. It was a violation of the rules of war, but it was done through a mistake. The Merrimac replied by recalling her men and by firing hot shot into the Congress, setting her on fire. Captain Buchanan, of the Merrimac, was wounded by a rifle ball from shore just before this occurred.

While the fights between the Merrimac and the Cumberland and the Congress were going on, the other Northern vessels, the Minnesota, Roanoke, and St. Lawrence, had tried to go to the aid of the two Northern ships, but they all ran aground. It was five o'clock in the afternoon when the Congress was set afire, the tide was running low, and it was seen that it would be impossible for the Merrimac to do much more work that day. She turned away and went to the mouth of the river leading to Norfolk, satisfied with the day's work, and willing to leave the task of finishing up the other vessels at her leisure the next day. Two of her men had been killed by a shot that had entered a porthole, and eight had been wounded. The

Congress had had one hundred and thirty killed out of her crew of four hundred and thirty-four men. Altogether the loss of the North was two hundred and fifty men killed and drowned, in addition to the two ships, Cumberland and Congress.

The Congress burned far into the night, and the flames lit up the harbor as the little Monitor, which was called "a cheese box on a raft," steamed in. Worden, the commander of the Monitor, went to the Roanoke to ask what he should do the next day—whether to go to Washington, according to orders, or to stay and fight the Merrimac. Flag-Officer Marston told him to stay and fight, and disobey his orders. It was most fortunate that he did stay. That night was probably the darkest night for the North of the entire civil war. The next day, when the Secretary of the Navy, Mr. Gideon Welles, went to church, he met Captain Joseph Smith, the father of Lieutenant Smith, who had been killed on the Congress. Mr. Welles told Captain Smith that the Congress had been lost. Captain Smith replied:

"Then Joe is dead."

The Secretary of the Navy said that no list of the killed and wounded had arrived, and he hoped that Lieutenant Smith was safe.

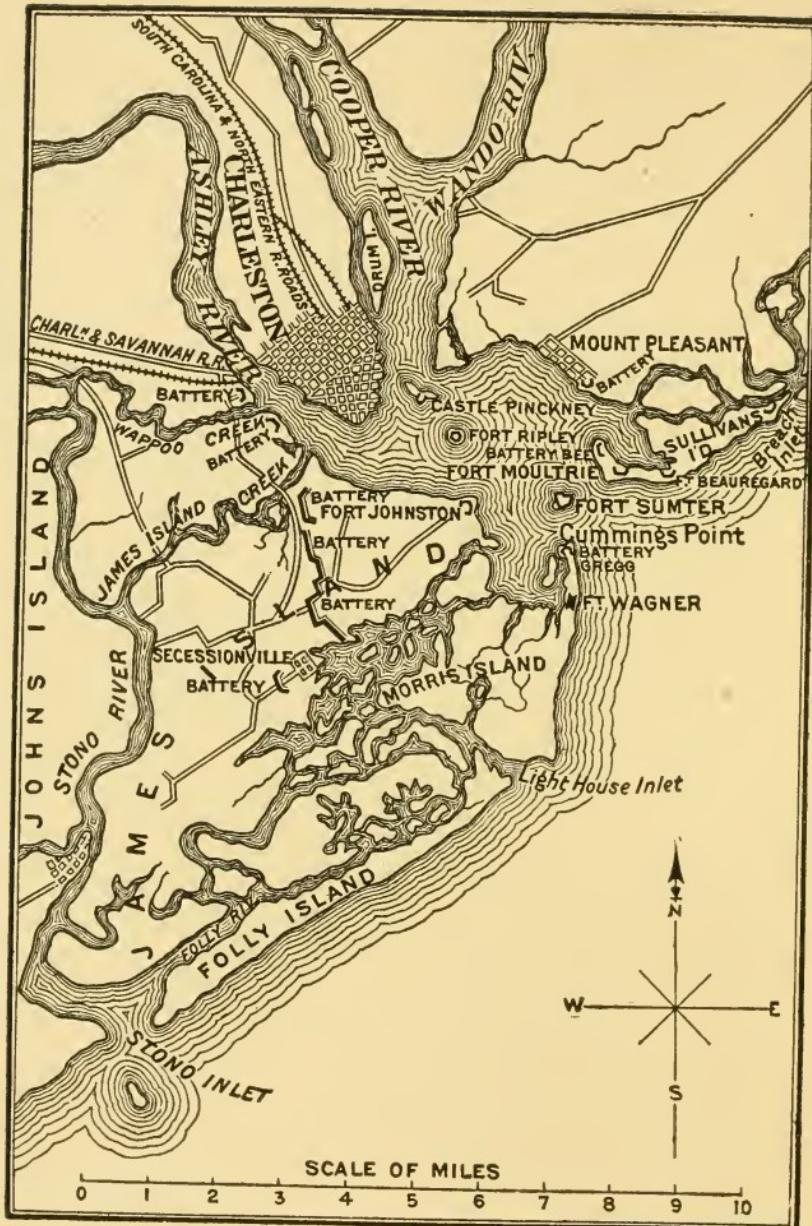
Captain Smith replied:

"Oh no, you don't know Joe as I know him; he never would surrender his ship."

CHAPTER II.

FIRST FIGHT BETWEEN IRONCLADS.

BRIGHT and early on Sunday morning, March 9, 1862, the Merrimac was ready to finish up the work of destroying the Northern fleet. Lieutenant Catesby Jones was now in command of the vessel. The night before he and his men had seen the Monitor steam up beside the Minnesota and anchor. They were not alarmed at the appearance of the North's ironclad, for such they knew it to be. At half past seven o'clock in the morning the Merrimac started out on her day's work. Her commander intended to ignore the Monitor, and he fired his first shot at the Minnesota, doing some damage to her. The Monitor began to move as soon as the Merrimac was seen coming out to renew the fight. Lieutenant Worden was in the pilot house, and Greene and Stimers with sixteen men were in the turret. The Monitor ran straight in front of the Merrimac, and the Merrimac fired one of her seven-inch guns, but the Monitor was so low in the water and the turret and pilot house were so small that the Monitor was not hit. The Monitor kept going

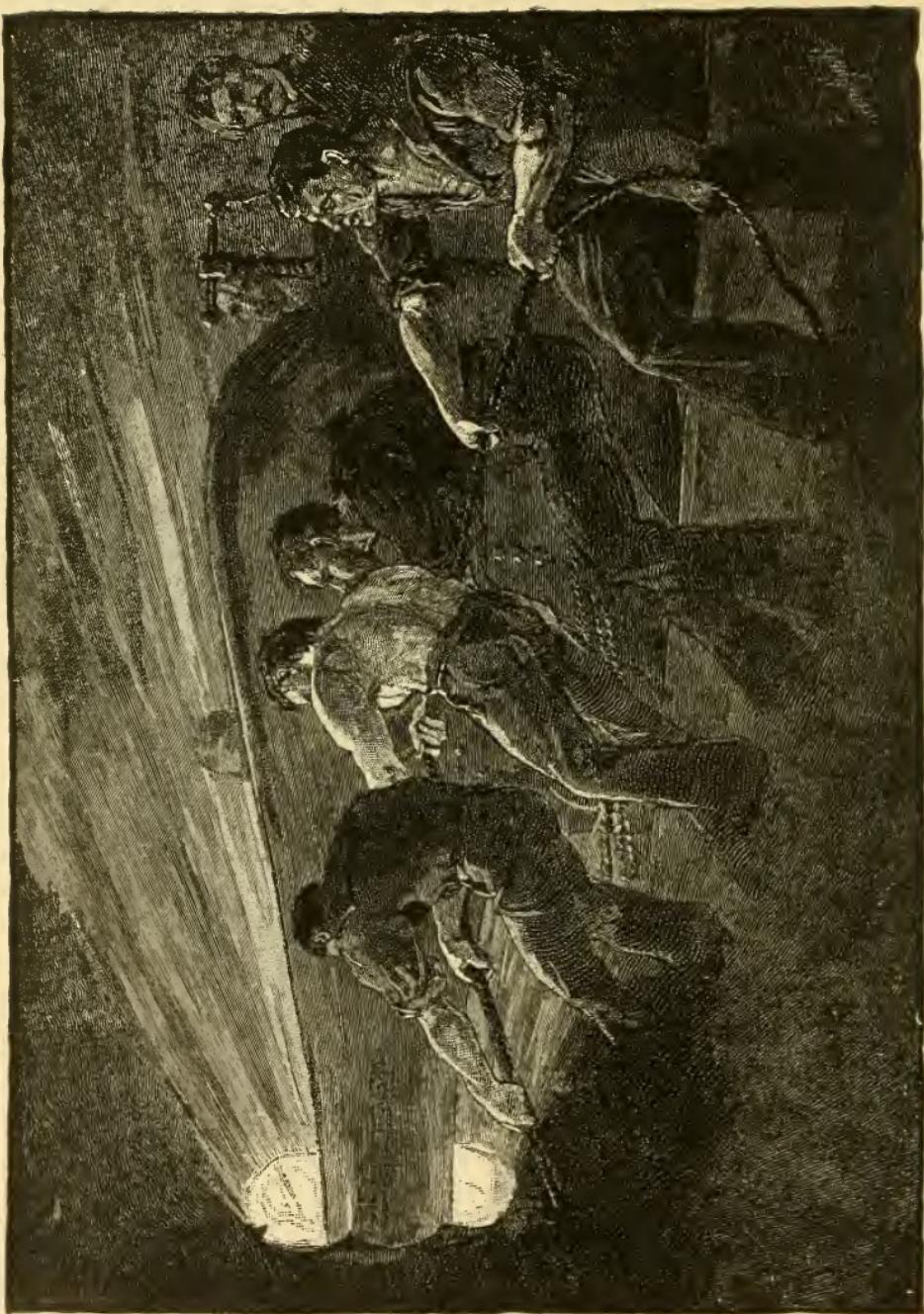


Map of Charleston harbor and vicinity.

closer, and when very near the Merrimac fired her two eleven-inch guns. The cannon balls struck the Merrimac on the sloping deck house and glanced off, doing no harm. Then the Merrimac turned her side to the Monitor and fired a broadside against her. This time some of the cannon balls struck the turret.

Right there occurred the great test of the Monitor. The men inside the turret heard the balls smash against it, and to their great relief found that no damage was done. At once their spirits rose. There was not a spare man in the crew. When they saw that the turret would turn, they felt not only safe, but believed they would win the fight. The Merrimac poured shot after shot at the Monitor, most of which passed over her, but many of which struck her. Nearly every shot that the Monitor fired seemed to hit the Merrimac, but they did little damage. The Monitor fired solid shot, and the Merrimac fired shells. It is agreed now that had the Merrimac fired solid shot, or had the Monitor used more powder in her guns, each of the vessels might have been damaged a great deal. The Monitor could fire about once in seven minutes; the Merrimac could fire only once in about fifteen minutes.

So these two strange ships of war went on shooting at each other and turning and twisting about in the waters of Hampton Roads. The Monitor could go nearly twice as fast as the Merrimac, and thus had



In the Monitor's turret.

the advantage in moving about. Soon the Monitor began to have difficulty in firing her guns. Chalk marks on the floor which showed the direction of the bow and stern were soon wiped out, and the place was filled with smoke and gases. The speaking tube between the pilot house and turret was shot away, and orders had to be passed by word of mouth. A landsman mixed them up in repeating them, and this made more confusion. The turret machinery did not work properly. It was hard to start the turret in motion, and harder still to stop it. So the men inside just loaded up the guns, opened the portholes, started the turret going, and when the Merrimac came in sight through the smoke they fired the guns as the turret was turning.

The Monitor did so little damage in her shooting, that Lieutenant Worden decided to ram the Merrimac. He wanted to strike her rudder and disable her. He missed the rudder by about two feet. The Merrimac got tired of useless shooting also, and started to go to fight the Minnesota. She ran aground, however, but after awhile got off again. The Monitor could go where the Merrimac could not, because she drew less water, and while the Merrimac was fast in the mud, the Monitor kept moving around her, shooting at her and worrying her officers. When the Merrimac got off the mud bank her commander, Lieutenant Jones, thought he would try to sink the Monitor by ramming

her. Lieutenant Worden saw what he was trying to do and shifted the Monitor so that only a glancing blow was struck. Jones called for men to board the Monitor to try to capture her, but before they could get ready the Monitor slid off, and, as one of the Merrimac's officers said afterward, "was as safe as if she had gone to the top of the Blue Ridge Mountains."

The ammunition in the turret of the Monitor was now so low that she went off into shoal water to renew her supply. She was such a crude affair that she could not be fought when the men were renewing the ammunition. The turret had to remain stationary at such a time, while powder and shot were being brought through a narrow hatchway in the floor. It required fifteen minutes to do this work. The Merrimac's officers thought the Monitor had given up the fight, but they were so interested in watching her that they did not attempt to go after the other ships during this time. To their surprise, at about 11.30 o'clock the Monitor came toward them again.

It was soon after this that a serious accident occurred to Lieutenant Worden in the Monitor's pilot house. One of the Merrimac's shells struck the shutter of the peephole through which Worden was looking. The shell burst, and powder and shreds of iron filled Worden's eyes and made him nearly unconscious. It also injured the other men in the pilot

house. For fifteen minutes Greene, in the turret, received no orders from Worden, and the Monitor was drifting about helplessly. Greene went to the pilot house to see what was the trouble, and found Worden blinded and bleeding terribly. He took Worden below, and placed him on a sofa. Worden asked how the fight was going, and when he was told said: "Then I die happy." But he did not die, although it was a long time before he recovered. Greene then went into the pilot house and took charge of the Monitor.

But the fight was nearly over. Lieutenant Jones of the Merrimac noticed that his men did not fire as often as they could, and he asked why they did not shoot more. They said that ammunition was getting scarce, and they might as well snap their fingers at the Monitor as shoot at her, and so they decided to save their powder and shot. The Merrimac was leaking a little in the place where the Monitor had struck her, and as it was evident that the Monitor was a match for her, she gradually drew off and finally went back to Norfolk, leaving the Monitor in control of the scene of battle. The Monitor had fired forty-one shots, had been hit twenty-two times, nine of which were on the turret and two on the pilot house. In the two days' fight the Merrimac had been hit ninety-seven times. One of the shots of the Monitor had nearly passed through her side, and had a second one

struck in the same place it probably would have gone through. The wooden backing to her armor was broken in several places, but no serious damage had been done.

It was a drawn battle, but really the Monitor had won, because she saved the other ships of the Northern side, and the Merrimac had withdrawn from the field. Not a man had been killed on either boat during the fight, and neither boat was damaged so that she could not have continued fighting. Nevertheless, it was the most important naval battle fought in modern times. It proved that modern war ships must have turrets for their big guns, and also that they must have as thick armor as they can carry. From that very day war ships have been developed along these lines all over the world. The United States, therefore, had led the way once more in naval fighting.

Twice after this were the Monitor and Merrimac close enough to each other to fight, but no shots were exchanged. On April 11th, the Merrimac, with six gunboats, came out to fight, but the Monitor declined battle. Her commander had orders to take no chances, and after the gunboats which were with the Merrimac had captured three Northern supply boats that were lying near the Northern fleet, the Merrimac and her escorts and prizes went back to Norfolk. On May 8th the Merrimac came down the river again,

and this time the Monitor was ready for her, but she declined battle and went back.

It was soon seen that Norfolk would be captured by the Northern troops. The Southern men took as many of the guns and as much of stores out of the Merrimac as they could, so as to lighten her and get her over the bar at the mouth of the James River. They wanted to use the vessel in protecting Richmond, the Southern capital. It was found, however, that it would be impossible to get her up the river, and so on May 11th they blew her up, destroying her completely. The Northern men, therefore, did not get possession of her.

But the crew of the Merrimac were still to have another fight with the crew of the Monitor. Four days later, on May 15th, the Monitor, with the Galena, Port Royal, and Naugatuck, went up the James River, and had a fight with the Southern batteries which were established at Drewry's Bluff. The battle lasted four hours, and thirteen men were killed and fourteen wounded on the Northern ships, but none of the crew on the Monitor was injured. The crew of the Merrimac fought on land behind some of the guns that had been used on their vessel.

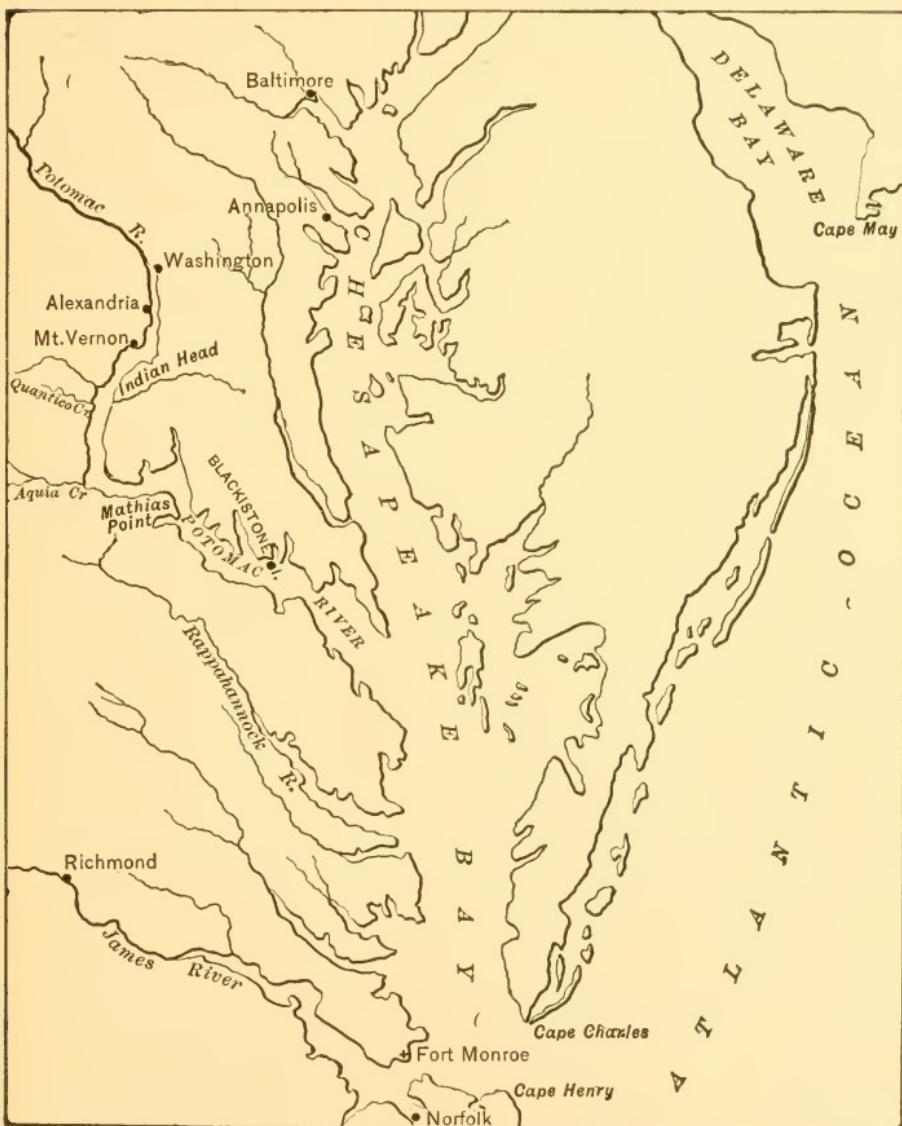
The fighting days of the Monitor were now over. She remained at Hampton Roads until December 29, 1862, when, in tow of the steamer Rhode Island, she started south for Beaufort, N. C., to help in the

operations near Hatteras Island. She encountered a violent gale off Cape Hatteras, and on the night of December 30th it was seen that she must sink. The Rhode Island's men rescued nearly all the crew at great risk to their own lives. Sixteen of the Monitor's crew, who, it is said, were "dazed and terrified," refused to leave the turret, and went down with the ship. Thus ended the career of a noble vessel and the careers of some of her noble crew.

Besides saving the Northern ships the Monitor had done another great work; she had preserved the control of the Chesapeake to the North, and had also kept the Potomac open, so that Washington should not be attacked by any vessel that the South might build. That was one of the first and important things that the navy had to do in the long fight with the South. Washington must be protected, and the approaches to it by water must be kept in the control of the North. It was a long and hard task to make the South abandon the Potomac River as the northern frontier of its operations. It was on May 31, 1861, nearly a year before the Monitor arrived south, that the first fight occurred along the Potomac in the effort to drive the Southern forces away from Washington. It might also be called the first naval battle of the war.

The Southern men had built a land battery at Acquia Creek, almost within sight of Washington,

and Flag-Officer James H. Ward was ordered to go down and destroy the works. He had three small vessels, the Freeborn, Anacostia, and Resolute. The



The Chesapeake and tributaries.

firing began at 10.30 o'clock at night. The Northern boats had seven small guns on them, and the Southern men had thirteen guns, somewhat larger than those on the boats, in the land battery. The firing was kept up for a large part of the night and was renewed the next day, lasting five hours. No one was killed. One Southern man lost a finger, and Captain S. C. Rowan, who with the Pawnee had joined Flag-Officer Ward, received a scratch on the face from a splinter. Neither side won a victory.

On June 27, 1861, Ward, with the Freeborn, Reliance, and Pawnee, went down to Matthias Point to attack some earthworks there. The firing began about nine o'clock in the morning, and Flag-Officer Ward was killed. He was the first officer of high rank in the navy to lose his life in the civil war.

All during that summer and the next fall the Northern ships patrolled the Potomac. They had frequent engagements with Southern forces along the banks. Northern men were killed and wounded several times, but little by little the Southern men were driven away, and when the Monitor had opened the Chesapeake and the Potomac to Northern ships, the Southern forces had to fall back and no longer threaten the national capital by water.

It was the Monitor, therefore, that helped to make Washington safe, and as we take final leave of her and her brave crew, it should be a pleasure to read this

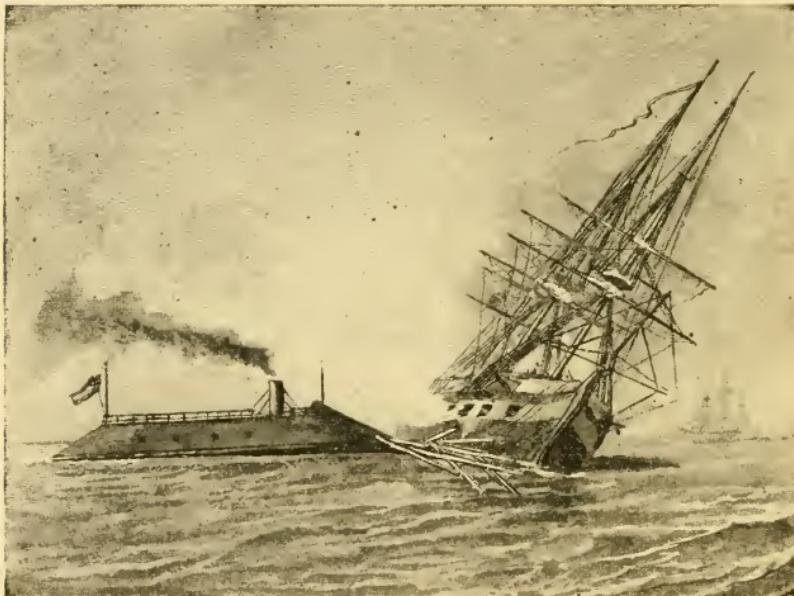
letter, which the crew sent to Worden in Washington, where he had gone to restore his health, and which, with all its bad grammar, shows better than anything else the kind of men who served their country so well on that vessel:

DEAR AND HONORED CAPTAIN.

DEAR SIR: These few lines is from the crew of the Monitor, with their kindest love to you their Honored Captain, hoping to God that they will have the pleasure of welcoming you back to us again soon, for we are all ready able and willing to meet Death or anything else, only give us back our Captain again. Dear Captain, we have got your pilot house fixed and all ready for you when you get well again; and we all sincerely hope that soon we will have the pleasure of welcoming you back to it. We are waiting very patiently to engage our Antagonist if we could only get a chance to do so. The last time she came out we all thought we would have the Pleasure of sinking her. But we all got disappointed, for we did not fire one shot and the Norfolk papers says we are cowards in the Monitor—and all we want is a chance to show them where it lies with you for our Captain. We can teach them who is cowards. But there is a great deal that we would like to write you but we think you will soon be with us again yourself. But we all join in with our kindest love to you, hoping that God will restore you to us again and hoping that your sufferings is at an end now, and we are all so glad to hear that your eyesight will be spared to

you again. We would wish to write more to you if we have your kind Permission to do so but at present we all conclude by tendering to you our kindest Love and affection, to our Dear and Honored Captain.

We remain untill Death your Affectionate Crew
THE MONITOR BOYS.



Destruction of the United States man-of-war Cumberland
by the Confederate ram Merrimac.

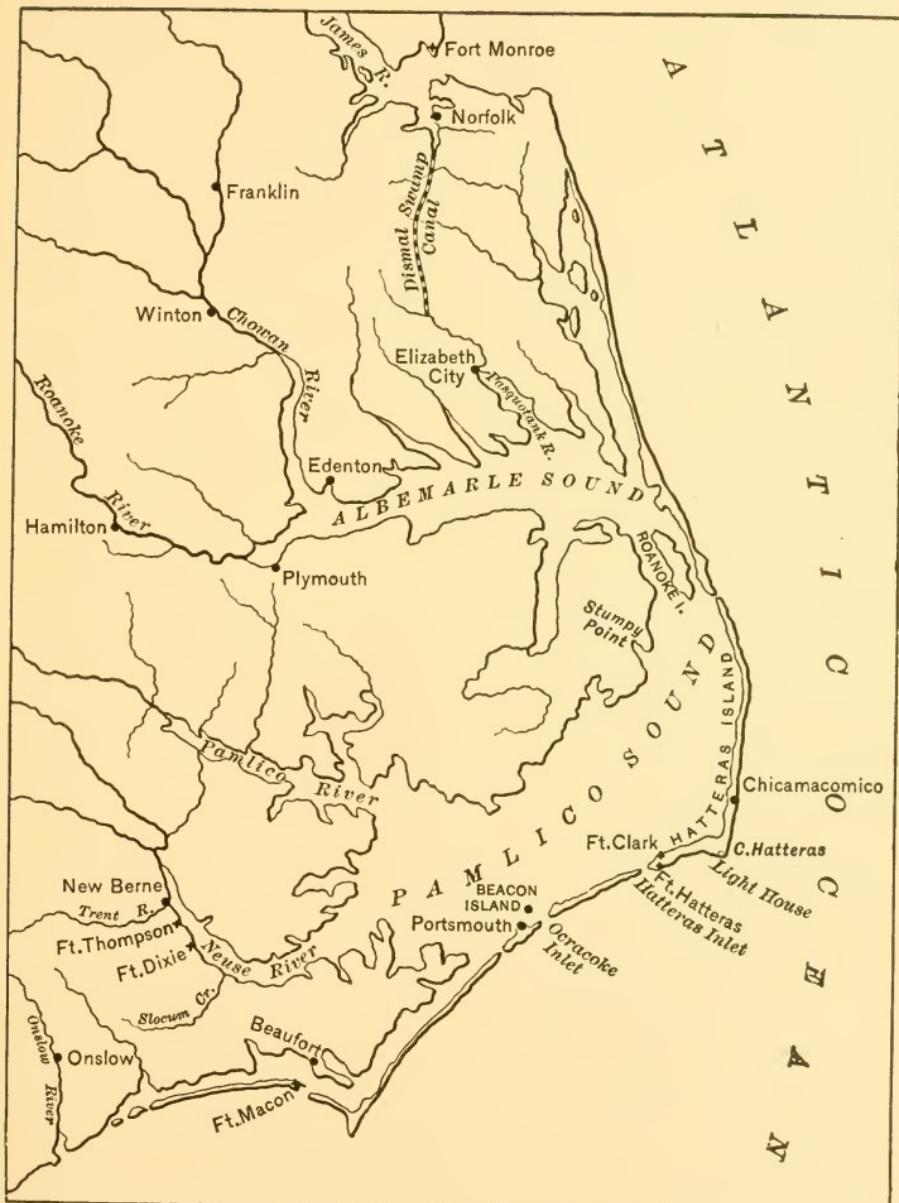
CHAPTER III.

FIGHTING ALONG THE ATLANTIC COAST.

WHEN the civil war began, the United States had sixty-nine ships fit for service. The home squadron, however, was made up of only five sailing ships and seven steamers; of these twelve vessels only three were available for instant service. The other war ships were scattered in various parts of the world. It took months and months to get the ships back home. Exactly three hundred and twenty-two officers resigned from the navy and went into the service of the South, but the South had no navy. During the war it got together a lot of queer boats, but in the main the North, with its navy, which finally grew to about five hundred boats of all sorts, had to fight the forts of the South along the Atlantic coast and the Gulf of Mexico and up the Mississippi and other rivers flowing into it. That was the great work of the navy in the conflict. In addition, the navy blockaded the entire coast of the South, a task the like of which was never known before. The South had no manufactures, and by shutting up its ports and preventing it

from sending cotton to Europe and from receiving supplies, even medicines for the sick being cut off, the North dealt it a hard blow. By opening the Mississippi River and keeping it open, the armies of the South were cut off from many supplies.

It was not until late in the summer of 1861 that the North began naval work in real earnest. Two very large expeditions were sent out from Norfolk that year; one was known as the Hatteras expedition, and the other as the Port Royal expedition. The Hatteras expedition was to seize the coasts and inland sounds along the State of North Carolina. It sailed from Hampton Roads on August 26, 1861, under Commodore Stringham. He had seven ships, on which were one hundred and fifty-eight guns. There were three transports with the fleet, carrying nine hundred soldiers under Major-General B. F. Butler. This fleet arrived at Hatteras Inlet, just below Cape Hatteras, the next day, and on August 28th the work of landing troops began on the ocean front of the long strip of sand from which Cape Hatteras juts out. There were two forts covering Hatteras Inlet, Forts Clark and Hatteras. Fort Clark guarded the approach from the ocean, and was a small earthwork. Fort Hatteras protected the inlet. The surf was so high that the iron boats in which the Northern men landed were tossed on the beach and only three hundred soldiers got ashore. They had to stay there all



The North Carolina Sounds.

day and all night in the rain without food or protection. The war ships fired at Fort Clark until the men there abandoned it. The next morning the men in Fort Hatteras fled into what they called a bombproof, a place covered by earth, where ammunition was stored, and where men could be safe from big cannon balls. The bombardment by the ships had made them leave their guns. One of the shells from the fleet entered a ventilator to the bombproof, and caused a terrible panic among the men there. They thought that they would all be killed, and they rushed out and soon the fort surrendered. The North captured six hundred and fifteen prisoners. This was really the first victory of the North in the civil war. The Northern forces did not lose a man.

It was soon decided to send a regiment to the upper end of Hatteras Island to keep the Southern men from landing there and marching down on the Northern soldiers. A little boat called the Fannie went along up the sound with supplies for the troops. When the soldiers reached the upper end of the island some Southern vessels captured the Fannie, the boat having been cut off from the land forces by shoal water, and a large number of Southern troops tried to capture the Indiana regiment which had marched up to the end of the island. The Southern men tried to land soldiers behind the Northern troops as well as in front of them. The Northern men saw the trap, and

then there began a race along the sandy shore of forty miles between the Northern troops and the Southern steamers on the sound inside the Hatteras strip of sand. The steamers were delayed and the Northern troops won the race, after being chased all the way by the Southern troops who had been landed above them.

When the racing forces reached Cape Hatteras, the Northern vessel Monticello, out in the ocean, saw what was going on and began to shell the Southern soldiers. The Southern men tried to get on board their ships on the inside of the island, but before they succeeded in doing that many of them were killed. Two sloop loads of them were sunk by shells which struck the little vessels, and nearly every one on board the vessels was killed or drowned. That ended the fighting on the Hatteras sand strip.

The time had now come for the Port Royal expedition. It started out from Hampton Roads on October 29, 1861, and consisted of more than fifty vessels. It was a curious collection. It was made up mostly of tugboats and ferryboats, with several large war ships and army transports thrown in. This description has been given of its start:

"High plumes of smoke, looking almost like black battle flags, rose and waved over the steamers. The rigging of the sailing ships was full of busy sailors. Soon the waters were dashed into foam by the wheels and 'brazen fins' of the steamers. Fifty ships

stretching seaward in one squadron, bearing the American flag, had not been seen before, and it was a sight to warm an American heart."

On the way to Port Royal, which was to be captured so that the North might have a port where its ships could be coaled and repaired, a terrible storm arose. The ships were all scattered, and one of them, the Governor, went down; but, fortunately, all those on board, except seven, were rescued by the war ship Sabine. Many of the men on the Governor, however, had to jump into the ocean, from which they were rescued by small boats. It was not until November 4th that the ships began to straggle in. There were twelve thousand troops on the transports with the expedition. The bar off Port Royal was ten miles out to sea, and finally all the ships got over it.

The entrance to Port Royal harbor is two and one half miles wide. On the southern side of the entrance was Fort Walker; on the northern side was Fort Beauregard. Both forts were under command of General Thomas Drayton. Captain Percival Drayton, General Drayton's brother, was in command of the Northern war ship Pocahontas, and so, as at the Monitor and Merrimac fight, two brothers were fighting against each other.

Flag-Officer Dupont, who had charge of the naval forces, formed his fighting ships into two squadrons. They moved inside the harbor firing on the forts as

they went. One squadron was composed of small boats, and after it passed into the bay it remained there watching for Commodore Tatnall, of the Southern

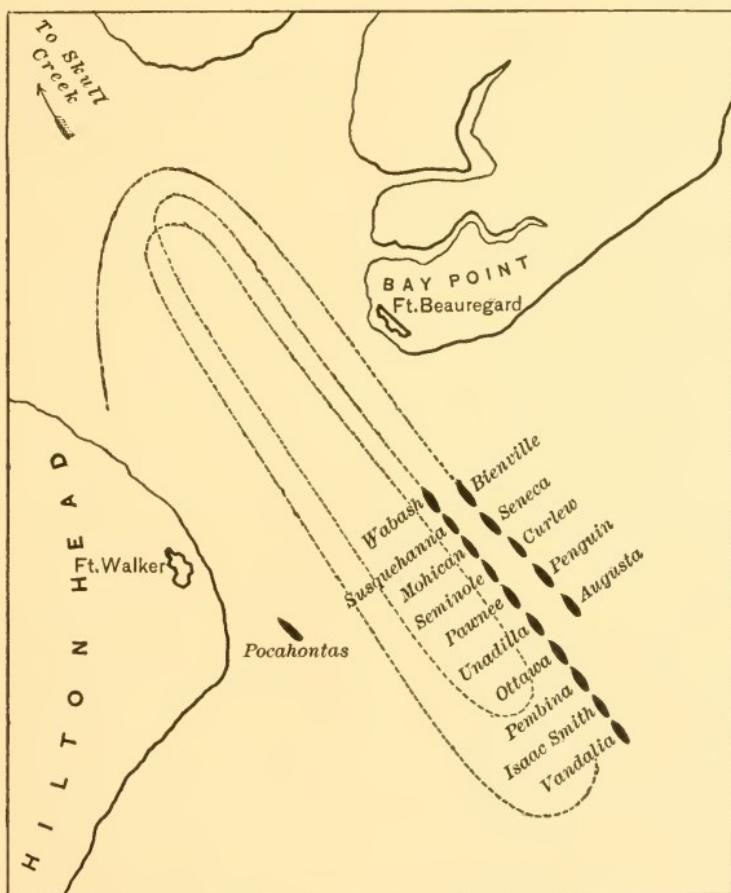
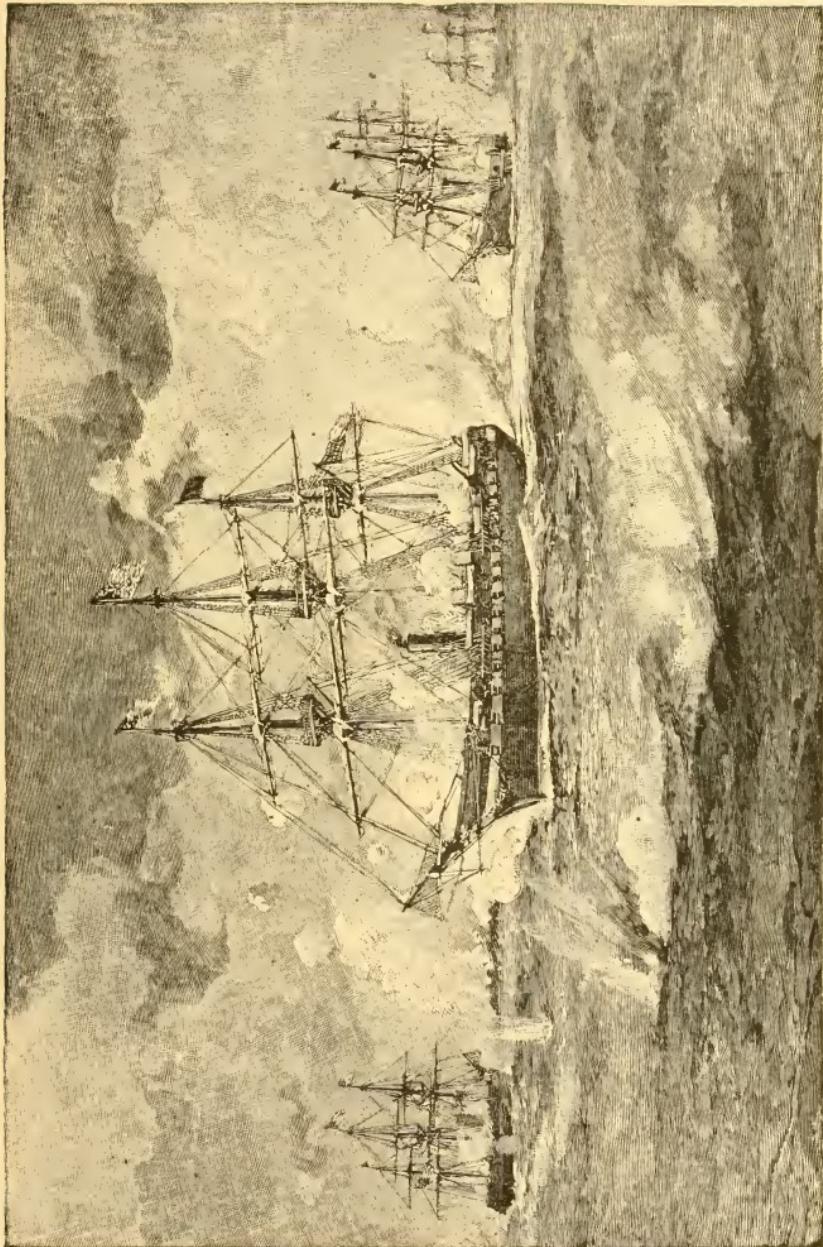


Diagram of the battle of Port Royal.

navy, who had three or four small boats hidden in those waters. The main fleet, with the Wabash in the lead, turned after it had gone inside and began to pass out again. The forts were not built to shoot up

the harbor, and the Northern ships did great damage to them while passing out to sea. Again the procession moved inside the bay and again it passed out. Finally only three guns on Fort Walker were fit for use, and it was abandoned. Later in the day Fort Beauregard on the northern side of the inlet was also abandoned. The total number of killed on the war ships was eight; the killed in Fort Walker numbered ten. One of the humorous things about the fight had to do with the Unadilla, one of the Northern war ships. Her machinery got out of order and the engineers could not stop her. She signaled to the other vessels to move out of the way, and Admiral Ammen, in writing about it afterward, said it reminded him of "the droll song of the man with the cork leg that would not let him tarry."

This fight, like that at Fort Hatteras, was a most important victory for the North, and it was won much in the same way, by keeping the ships in motion while they were attacking the forts. But the hardest part of the struggle along those dreary and lonely shores of the Atlantic was yet to come. It was necessary in all sorts of weather to go up the hundreds of bays and rivers, through swamps and marshes, in order to destroy numerous forts and earthworks, and to cut off that part of the South from receiving supplies by the ocean or from recapturing the forts that were taken. More than a year was occupied in various

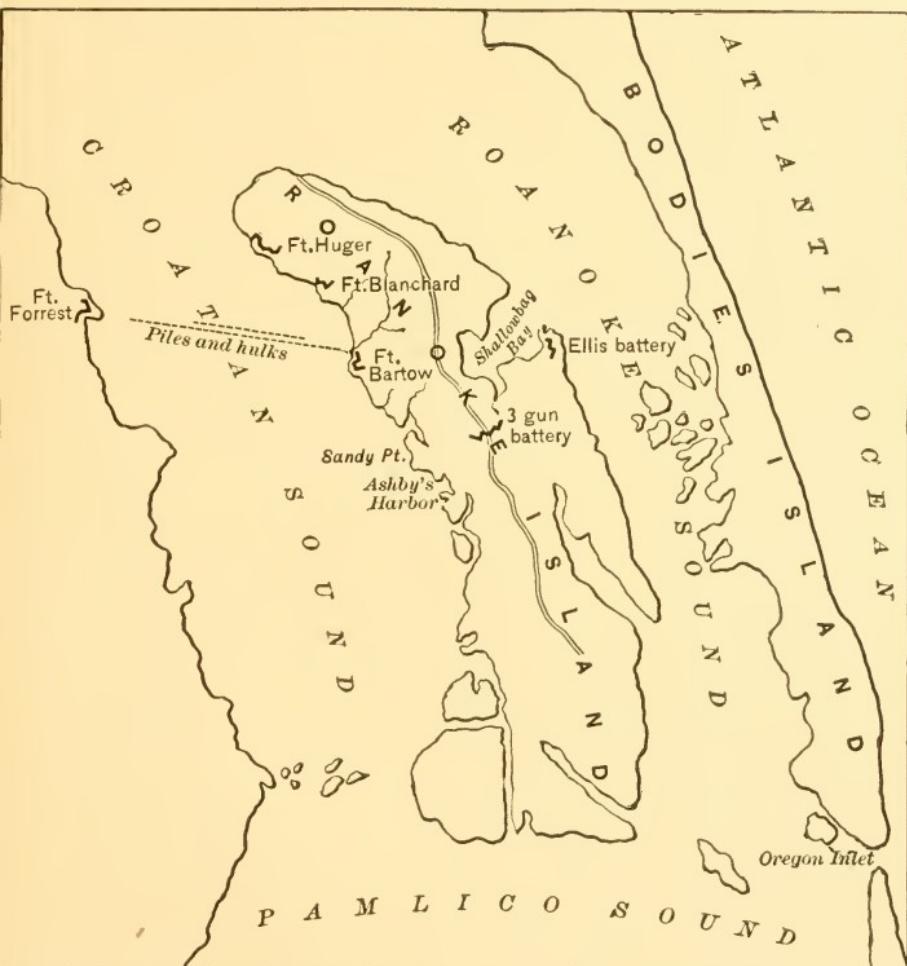


Dupont's circle of fire.

expeditions of this kind with Hatteras Island or Port Royal as a base. It was dreary work, and was largely a fight of weeks and months between forces on ships and forces on land; it was navy against army. Many acts of bravery were performed by individuals, and the heroism shown was of the kind that consists largely in using pure grit without having any chance to reveal its real quality.

The most important of these secondary expeditions was the one to Roanoke Island, just north of Hatteras Island, and inside the strip of sand that runs along the ocean. Admiral Goldsborough was in charge of the navy in this affair and with him was General A. E. Burnside, who had twelve thousand soldiers on transports. This expedition started from Norfolk in January, 1862. There were one hundred and twenty vessels in it of all sorts. Practically none was fit for ocean service. They had to be of light draught, so as to get over the bars. All had tremendous guns on them, really too large for the boats. As in the case of the Port Royal expedition, a big storm arose, but all the boats reached shelter inside the Hatteras sand strip with the exception of two small ones, of which one was the Pocahontas, carrying a lot of horses. This vessel was lost. On February 5, 1862, the expedition started from Hatteras Island up the Pamlico Sound to capture Roanoke Island. There were six forts on the island and the lower end

of it was a marsh. At the upper end of the island the Southern forces had assembled a fleet of half a dozen small gunboats, which were hidden behind a lot of



Scene of the battle of Roanoake Island.

sunken vessels and piles. Admiral Goldsborough's ships shelled the forts while the troops landed halfway

up the island. The fighting lasted two days. Ten thousand Northern troops who had been fighting overcame five thousand Southern troops, and the Northern vessels broke through the barrier, across the sound from Roanoke Island to the mainland, and put the Southern vessels to flight. The navy itself had six men killed, and the army had forty-one killed. The Northern forces took twenty-six hundred and seventy-five Southern men prisoners.

The Southern ships, in the effort to escape, ran up the Pasquotank River to Elizabeth City in North Carolina, where the Dismal Swamp Canal to Norfolk had an outlet. The Northern ships were almost out of powder and shot. It was necessary to sink the Southern ships, which were drawn up in line across the river behind Cobb's Point, by collision. The Southern ships began to shoot at the Northern ships when the latter approached, a day or two after the Roanoke Island fight, but the Northern vessels reserved their ammunition and came up slowly. When within a few hundred yards of the Southern boats Commander Rowan, of the Northern flotilla, set this signal:

“Make dash at the enemy.”

The dozen Northern ships did dash at the seven Southern vessels. There were collisions and hand-to-hand fighting; in fifteen minutes four of the Southern steamers were destroyed, one was cap-

tured, and two put to flight up the Dismal Swamp Canal.

The fleeing Southern soldiers and sailors in the town set fire to many of the houses, but the Northern troops and sailors landing, soon put out the fires and saved much property.

Another very important expedition grew out of the effort to keep the inland waters of North Carolina in possession of the North. It was an expedition up the Neuse River to Newbern. A force of thirteen vessels, with transports conveying part of General Burnside's army, went up the river on March 12, 1862. The following morning the troops were landed at a place called Slocum's Creek. The city of Newbern was well defended. There were six forts along the river, and below them two lines of obstructions against war ships. The first of these obstructions consisted of double piling. Part of the piles were vertical, and part were pointed down stream and had iron caps on them. All were under water. In front of this double row of piles there were fastened thirty torpedoes. Farther up the river there was another row of obstructions, consisting of twenty-four vessels which had been sunk, forming a complete barrier across the river. It did not seem possible for any boats to break through.

The fighting to capture Newbern occupied two days, March 13th and 14th. The Northern war ships

below the barriers in the river shelled the forts, and the marching Northern troops on land stormed them one by one. The Southern soldiers fled from fort after fort, and finally, on the second day, the war ships broke through the barriers. This was not accomplished, however, until Commander Rowan, in charge of the ships, showed great bravery. He set this signal:

“Follow me.”

The ships did follow him. Swiftly over the torpedoes the vessels went. None of the torpedoes exploded. Sharp against the iron-tipped piles the vessels dashed. Three of the ships were damaged severely, but all were able to stay afloat and pass through the barrier. While the troops were carrying everything before them, the fleet swept up the river against the second barrier and carried that away. Soon both army and navy were in possession of the town. In this fight only two men were killed and eleven wounded on the ships. An expedition followed to Fort Macon in Beaufort harbor, near Cape Lookout. The ships bombarded this while the army captured it. There were small expeditions to Hamilton, Washington, Franklin, Onslow, Jacksonville, and other towns, in which great bravery was shown by the men who went on them, and in one of which, that to Onslow, Lieutenant William B. Cushing, of whom we shall hear something later, distinguished himself by his bravery

in escaping with a few companions in an open boat down the River Onslow, under a heavy fire from shore, after his own boat, the *Ellis*, had been lost through a mistake of the pilot in running her into shoal water. By the fall of 1862, however, the North Carolina sounds and adjacent waters were in complete possession of the North.

From the Port Royal base many expeditions were sent into nearby sounds, rivers, creeks, and swamps. Many lives were lost in these ventures, which might be called rowboat expeditions. No braver or harder work was done in the entire war than was done by the men who went on these trips. The forts and forces in upper Florida, with Fernandina as a base, were destroyed, and little by little the earthworks and fortifications on the many inlets in the entire swampy region that could be reached from Port Royal were battered down. All this ended in the capture of Fort Pulaski on Tybee Island at the mouth of the Savannah River, in April, 1863. The ships had surrounded the fort, but could not get near it, and it was necessary to drag cannon through the swamps on wooden supports that were half rafts and half railroads, so that the forts might be shelled. Eleven batteries were placed around the fort, and after two days' shelling it surrendered. This was the first time that rifled guns were used against a modern fort, and the fight showed that the day of stone forts was over, just

as the fight between the Monitor and Merrimac had showed that the day of wooden war ships had passed.

The North, through the navy, had made a great advance by this time. On the Atlantic coast only the important ports of Wilmington, Charleston, and Savannah remained in possession of the South. Key West always remained in possession of the North, as did Fort Pickens, in Pensacola harbor. Mobile Bay and the Mississippi were still in the South's possession, and it was against the ports along the Atlantic and in the Gulf and up the Mississippi and its tributaries that the heaviest work of the navy was yet to be done.



The Union navy flotilla co-operating with the land force in the attack on Fort Macon.

CHAPTER IV.

UP THE MISSISSIPPI—FARRAGUT APPEARS.

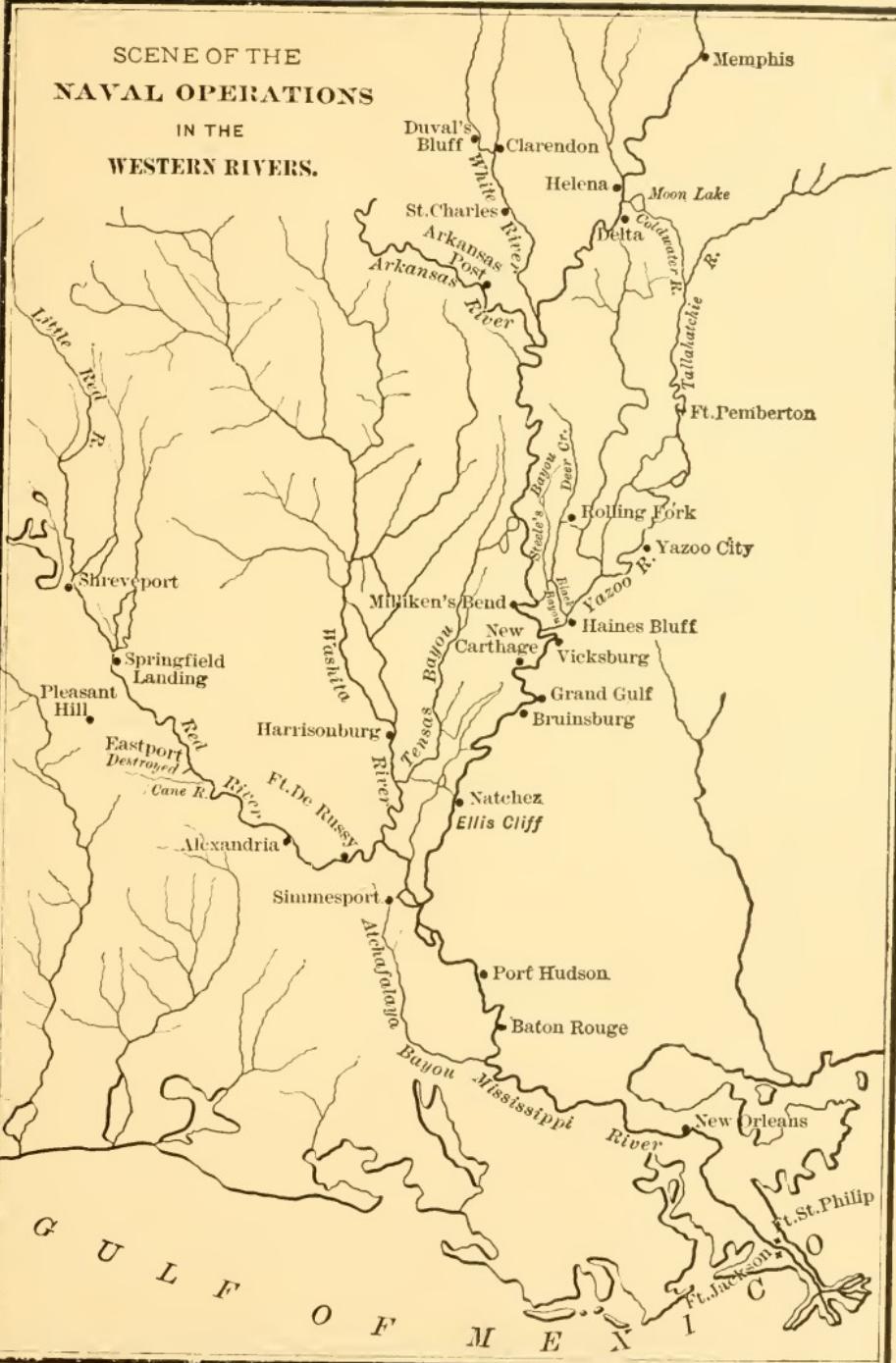
THE Gulf of Mexico early became the scene of war. Southern forces had seized the navy yard at Pensacola, and the three forts in that harbor, Pickens, McRae, and Barrancas, were in danger of being captured. The sloop of war Brooklyn was sent to the aid of the forts with an artillery company, and on March 31, 1861, tried to land the soldiers. The authorities in the navy yard forbade it, despite the orders of the Government at Washington, and it became necessary to send orders there again. Lieutenant Worden, who fought later in the Monitor, was selected to take these orders. He tore up the written orders, having committed them to memory, and got through the Southern lines, saying that he had a mere verbal message for the commander of the Brooklyn. At once, after his arrival, all the Northern troops available in the station were sent to Fort Pickens, which remained in possession of the North for the rest of the war. Worden was captured in Alabama on his way back and held a prisoner for seven months before he was released. The

war ship Colorado blockaded the harbor of Pensacola after that, and on September 13, 1861, nearly one hundred of her men in small boats did a brave thing in invading the navy yard, and in destroying a vessel, called the Judah, which was being made ready, in plain sight of Fort Pickens, to destroy or capture the commerce of the North. Such vessels when owned and operated by private persons are called privateers.

Farther along on the Gulf there had been some fighting at Galveston; the blockading vessel, South Carolina, had fired on a battery near the city in answer to some shots from the battery. That was on August 31, 1861. A few weeks later Lieutenant Jouett entered the harbor of Galveston with a party in small boats, and although three men were killed and six wounded out of the forty men with him, the vessel Royal Yacht, which was also being fitted out to prey on Northern commerce, was destroyed.

Just before this brave act by Jouett and his men there occurred what has been called the "Bull Run of the navy." It was an occasion which did not reflect credit upon the officers of the United States navy. Such events are so rare that the story should be told, because it brings out all the clearer the true spirit of the naval officers. The Mississippi River had been blockaded by four vessels which were stationed up the river at the place where it branches and forms a delta, flowing into the Gulf through several

SCENE OF THE
NAVAL OPERATIONS
IN THE
WESTERN RIVERS.



mouths. The plan was to prevent ships from getting in or out of the river. There were four ships of war on watch. They were the flagship Richmond, the sloop Vincennes, the sloop Preble, and the little screw steamer Water Witch. Altogether they had forty-five guns, nearly one half of which were of very high grade. There had been rumors that the South was building some war ships up the river, and a watch was kept for them also. One of these was a ram—the South built a good many vessels of this kind—called the Manassas. She was simply a big ocean-going tug that once belonged in Boston. The upper works had been cut down and an oval deck or roof of thick oak had been built on her. She had one sixty-eight-pounder gun. There was only one little hatchway through which the crew could pass in or out. Her engines would scarcely go, her gun wouldn't shoot, and altogether she was the crudest engine of war yet seen afloat in the war. But the officers on the watching Northern boats were frightened about her. An awful bogie man could not have scared a lot of children worse.

It was 3.30 A. M. on October 13, 1861, that the lookout on the Preble called out:

“Here comes the rebel ram!”

Sure enough she was coming. She was swinging down stream with the tide, and she struck the Richmond a glancing blow and made a small hole in her

side. That was all the damage she did. The Northern squadron had a terrible fright. The Richmond and Preble each fired broadsides at the awful monster, and then all the Northern boats tried to run away. Just then three fire rafts were seen coming down the river. The Richmond and Vincennes ran aground. The fire rafts ran ashore and did no damage, but Captain Pope, of the Richmond, was not going to take any chances, and he set the signal "Cross the bar." Captain Handy, of the Vincennes, was so anxious to get out of harm's way that he read the signal "Abandon ship," which he started to do at once. He laid a mine to blow up his vessel, and then in a pompous way, as though he were playing a part in a play in a cheap theater, he wrapped himself in the flag and left the ship. A sailor, brave man that he was, put Handy to shame by destroying the burning fuse that was to blow up the ship, and Handy had to go back to his vessel. Later in the day he asked permission to abandon the Vincennes again, but Pope would not permit it. They had a hard time to get the ships over the bar and out to sea, where they felt safer, but they did not feel comfortable until they had sent the Preble to Barrataria to get the South Carolina to come and help them. The transport McClellan also arrived, but the teeth of the commander of the Preble still chattered, and finally he asked permission to go to Ship

Island to get "wood for the ship's galley." The men on the Manassas, after the collision with the Richmond, found that the craft's engines were put out of order, and they were afraid they would be attacked while they were helpless. At last they got the engines to working and slowly crept up the river, while the Northern vessels were running away to sea.

Surely it was time for a strong man to appear in that region. That man did appear soon. His name was David Glasgow Farragut, one of the greatest names in the history of the United States navy. He was born in the South, but refused to leave the country's service when the war came. He had fought on the Essex under Commodore Porter in the War of 1812, and had served steadily since in the navy. Commodore Porter's son, David D. Porter, a commander in the navy, recommended that Farragut be appointed to command a fleet to open the Mississippi, and Farragut left Washington, where he had been engaged in minor duty, and appeared off the mouths of the Mississippi in his flagship Hartford, on February 20, 1862, having sailed from Hampton Roads on February 2d.

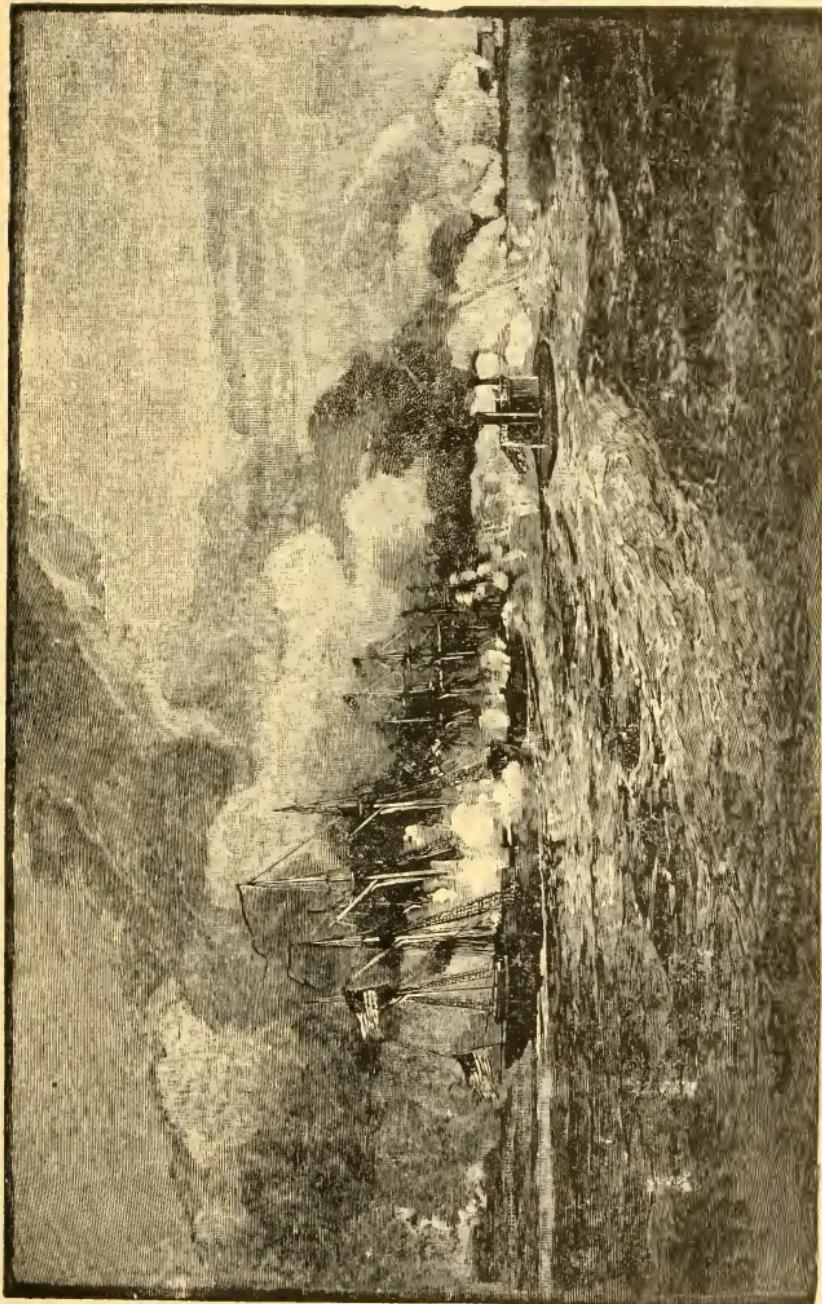
By the middle of April Farragut had gathered a squadron of seventeen ships, which mounted ninety-three guns that could be fired in broadside. None of the guns could be fired directly ahead. Farragut also

collected twenty mortar boats and six little gunboats to protect them. He had a difficult time in getting the larger vessels of his squadron over the bar, and one of them, the Colorado, could not be pulled over because of the shallow water. Twenty miles up the Mississippi were two fine forts. One was Fort St. Philip, and the other Fort Jackson. The river runs northeast where these forts were situated, and Fort St. Philip was on what might be called the northern bank. Fort Jackson was on the southern bank. The forts were only eight hundred yards distant from each other, and together they mounted one hundred and nine guns, of which only about fifteen were of the best kind. These had come from the Norfolk Navy Yard.

Farragut had orders to pass these forts with his ships. No such deed had ever been done before in war. The Southern officials thought that such an attempt would be made, and early in the year they placed across the river a barrier of thick cypress logs held in place by large anchors. A flood had come down the river and had broken the barrier in one place, but it was patched up by sinking seven small schooners in place of the logs that were swept away. In addition to all these defenses the South had eleven steamers converted into war ships, and they also had what they called a floating battery. The name of this battery was the Louisiana. This vessel had sixteen large-sized

guns on it behind thick armor, but she was not finished when Farragut appeared in the river, and she had to be towed to a place near the forts so that she could take part in the fighting. In addition to the various boats the Southern forces had, they had several fire rafts which were to be sent down the river blazing against the Northern ships.

Farragut began active work on April 16, 1862. Before he got safely above the two forts one of the most thrilling contests ever known in war took place. It was marked by great bravery on both sides. The first step that Farragut took in his plan to force his way up the river was to anchor his mortar schooners a short distance below the forts. He took limbs of trees and dressed up their masts and thus disguised the ships. Three of his officers had surveyed secretly the exact distances from the places on each side of the river, where the mortar boats were anchored, to the forts, and on the morning of April 18th the bombardment from the mortar boats began. The shells were thrown high in the air and were dropped into the forts. The firing lasted day and night for six days. Each boat fired a shot every ten minutes in the daytime and every thirty minutes in the nighttime. About nineteen hundred shells were fired every day from these mortar boats. This bombardment kept the men in the forts stirred up all the time, and frequently the gunners had to flee to bombproofs to seek safety.



Farragut's fleet going into action.

Altogether fourteen men in the forts were killed in the bombardment.

Farragut felt that it was now time to take his seagoing ships up the river. He sent two of the smaller ships, the *Itasca* and the *Pinola*, up the stream on the night of April 20th, to break down the barrier. The chains holding one of the schooners in the barrier were slipped and the schooner drifted down the river. The *Itasca* passed through the gap, turned about, and came down at full speed. She struck the chains that held the remaining schooners together and made a larger opening. This left a good-sized space in the barrier, large enough for Farragut's ships to pass in single file.

Early in the morning of April 24th two little red lights were hoisted to the masthead of Farragut's flagship, the *Hartford*, as a signal for the squadron to get under way. Farragut wanted to lead the fleet, but his captains persuaded him to place the largest of the ships in the middle of the procession, sending the smaller ones first and also allowing other small ones to bring up the rear. The ships were separated into three divisions, and Captain Theodorus Bailey, in the *Cayuga*, had the honor of leading the procession. Farragut, on the *Hartford*, led the second division. The lookouts on the forts soon saw what was coming. Alarms were sounded, shot and shell were secured and piled up near the guns, and by the time that the

Cayuga passed through the gap in the barrier the great fight began. Monster bonfires were lighted on the banks, the shells from the mortar boats down the river were screaming in midair, flashes of lightning were darting from the guns, and soon a great mass of black smoke began to settle on the river between the two forts. To enter this black cloud, and in the night, seemed not only like passing into the jaws of death, but also like going into a tomb. The smoke, however, protected the vessels of the first division of the fleet from serious damage, and they ran by the forts without much difficulty. It was after they got above the forts that they had their exciting time.

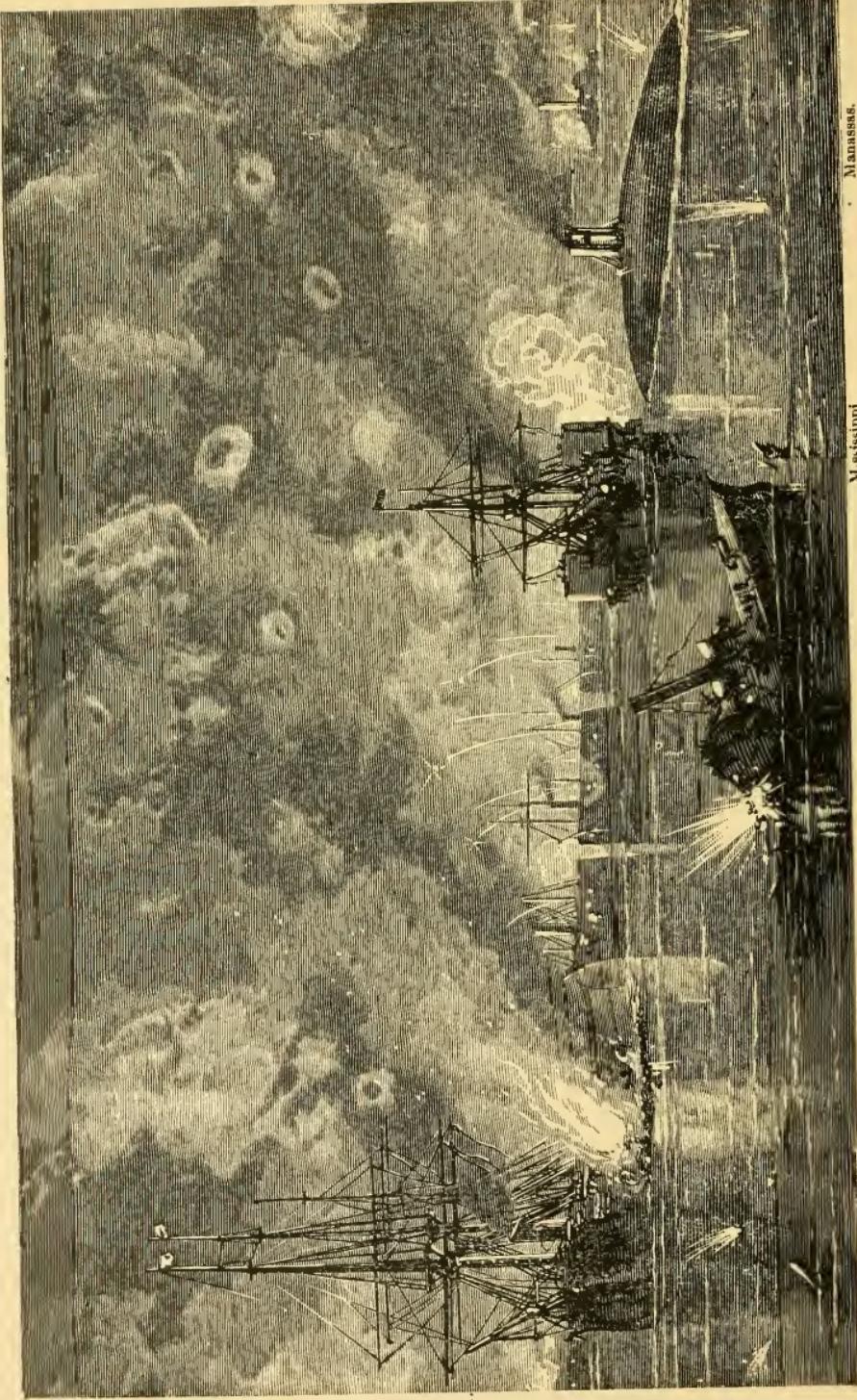
It was just before four o'clock in the morning when Farragut, leading the second division, swept past Fort St. Philip. The smoke was so thick that, as he discharged a broadside, he received little damage in return. Soon a more terrible enemy appeared. It was a fire raft pushed by a tug called the Mosher. Farragut tried to sheer off, but the current caught him, and ran his frigate hard and fast on a mud bank. He was so close to Fort St. Philip that the gunners could be heard talking in the fort. His ship was recognized by his flag on the mizzenmast, but the vessel was so close to the fort that the shots that were fired at him nearly all passed over him. The flames from the fire raft, however, leaped up the side of his vessel, into the portholes and up the rigging, and

Hartford.

Mississpl.

Manassas.

Farragut's fleet passing the forts.



there was great danger that the ship would be burned. Farragut is said to have exclaimed:

“ My God! is it to end in this way!”

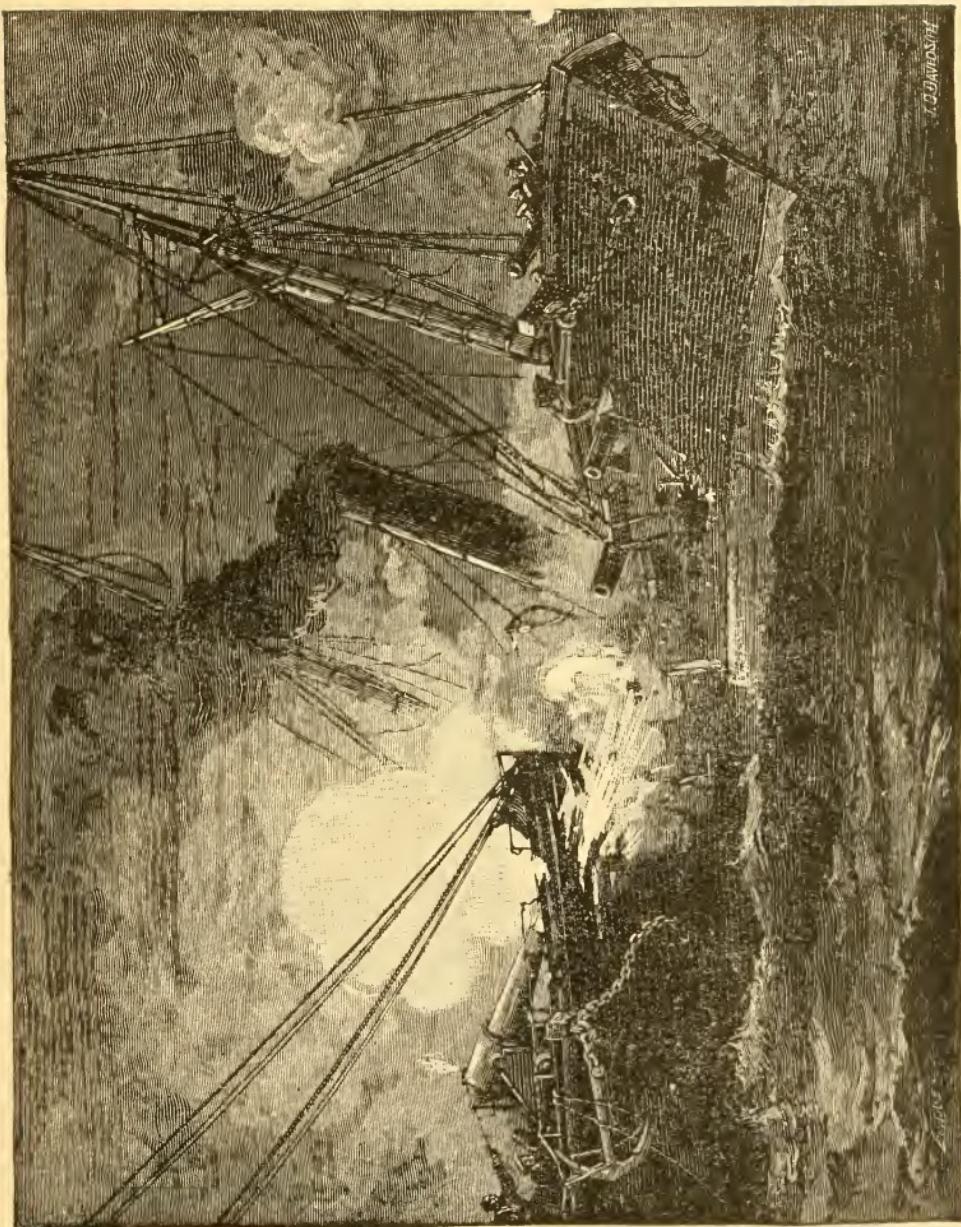
Recovering himself at once, he shouted sternly:

“ Don’t flinch from that fire, boys; there is a hotter fire for those who don’t do their duty!”

A stream of water was brought to play on the fire, and fortunately it was put out, but not until a shot had sunk the tug Mosher and its brave men, all of whom were lost. The engines of the Hartford were reversed, and the ship backed out of the mud and passed up the river beyond the forts, without further serious damage.

It was about four o’clock in the morning when Captain Bailey, on the Cayuga, and leading the first squadron, got clear of the forts and the smoke bank. He looked back and could not see one of the ships behind him. In front of him were eleven Southern gunboats. Three of them came for him at full speed. He fired a shot and crippled one of them, which had to run ashore. A second shot crippled another of the vessels, and then help arrived. The Varuna, the fastest of the Northern vessels, and fifth in the line, passed the forts and smoke, and, with a shot, sent off the third of the vessels that were after the Cayuga. Then began one of the most exciting fights seen during the war. The South had two very fast vessels in its fleet. They were furnished by the State of Louisiana,

and were called the Governor Moore and the McRae. Lieutenant Beverly Kennon, in command of the Moore, and Commander Thomas B. Huger, in charge of the McRae, put after the Varuna. The Varuna and the Moore, going at full speed, left the McRae behind, and that vessel turned down stream and met the Northern steamer Iroquois, which only a few months before Huger himself had commanded. A broadside from the Iroquois killed Huger and sent the McRae down to the forts for protection. Meanwhile the Moore was overhauling the Varuna, Kennon having used oil on his fires to get up more steam and additional speed. Shot after shot from the Varuna kept piercing the Moore, but still that vessel held on. Finally Kennon, in his effort to cripple the Varuna, fired his bow gun through the deck of his own vessel in order to make a porthole for a second shot. This shot did some damage, but just at that time the commander of the Varuna turned his vessel broadside, and the Moore rammed the Varuna twice. The Varuna, however, had practically shot the Moore to pieces. Fifty-seven of the crew of the Southern boat had been killed, and she drifted ashore and burned there. When the Varuna had shaken off the Moore, she was rammed on the other side by a Southern ram called the Stonewall Jackson. The Varuna was now sinking fast, and her commander ran her on the river bank, where she sank, her crew fir-



Kannon fires through his own how

ing her guns until the water nearly covered the cannon.

All the Northern vessels had an exciting time, but probably the Brooklyn suffered the most. That vessel found it difficult to pass through the barrier of logs below the forts, having missed the way in the smoke. At one time Captain Craven, her commander, thought that he would have to anchor between the forts and be shot to pieces there. He was determined not to go back. His vessel's engines, which had stopped, began to work again, however, and the ship passed on. The Brooklyn was right behind the Hartford, and when Craven saw Farragut's vessel aground, he stopped to help out Farragut by shooting at the forts. He passed within one hundred feet of Fort St. Philip, and the flashes from the Southern cannon scorched the faces of the gunners on the Brooklyn. Then the Brooklyn exchanged broadsides with the floating battery Louisiana, but was damaged little. The floating battery didn't seem to be hurt at all. Next a cry of alarm ran through the Brooklyn that the ram Manassas was coming down the river. The Manassas struck the Brooklyn a glancing blow, and did considerable damage to the Northern ship. A man came out on deck of the Manassas to see the effect of the collision. This man suddenly toppled over and fell into the water. An officer on the Brooklyn asked

the quartermaster if he had seen the man fall. He replied:

“Yes, I saw him fall; in fact, I helped him. I hit him on the head with my lead.”

The Brooklyn finally passed the forts and destroyed several of the small Southern gunboats up the river. The ram Manassas followed the Brooklyn up the river, but was seen by two Northern boats, the Mississippi and Kineo. They went after the Manassas and her crew ran her ashore and escaped. The Mississippi fired a broadside into her and fairly blew her out of the mud. She floated down the river, and while passing the mortar boats below the forts sank. Only three of the Southern vessels escaped that fate. It was bright day by this time, and all of Farragut’s vessels, except three little ones, the Itasca, the Winona, and the Pinola, had passed the forts. The loss on the Northern fleet was thirty-seven killed and one hundred and forty-seven wounded; the loss on the Southern boats was never known, but it was larger than on the Northern boats.

The hardest part of opening the Mississippi River from the sea had now been accomplished. On the next day, April 25th, New Orleans surrendered to Farragut. Forts St. Philip and Jackson also yielded. A few days later Baton Rouge and Natchez also surrendered, and finally, on June 18th, Farragut and his fleet, including the mortar schooners, arrived be-

low Vicksburg. On June 26th Commander Porter, with his mortar boats, began to shell the earthworks on the high bluffs of Vicksburg. At three o'clock in the morning of June 28th Farragut started to run by the batteries, as he had gone by the forts below New Orleans. He placed his three strongest vessels, the Richmond, Hartford, and Brooklyn, in one line nearest the batteries.

The smaller vessels of the squadron were placed in line on the outside of the first column. The land batteries began a fierce fire and Farragut, thinking he was too far in advance, slowed down his ships so as to help the others. Captain Palmer, of the Iroquois, who was at the head of the outside column, saw Farragut stop, and thought the flagship must be in trouble. Palmer therefore let his ship drift back into the fight. Farragut saw this, but did not understand Palmer's motives. He seized a trumpet and shouted to Palmer:

"Captain Palmer, what do you mean by disobeying my orders?"

Palmer replied that he thought Farragut was in distress and had come back to help him. Farragut never forgot that deed, so touched was he by Palmer's devotion. By six o'clock in the morning all the vessels, except three, had passed the batteries. The three remained behind through a mistake. Farragut met Flag-Officer Davis, of the fleet of boats that had

been operating in the upper Mississippi, and that had made its way down as far as Vicksburg. The operations of this upper fleet will be told about in another chapter. Farragut lost seven killed and thirty wounded in passing Vicksburg.

Two weeks after Farragut and Davis had joined their forces, an expedition of three vessels was sent up the Yazoo River to find out something about a Southern ram called the Arkansas, which was being built up there. The three vessels met the ram boldly coming down the stream. The ram put them all to flight, and then came right down among the Northern ships. Like all the Southern rams her machinery was almost useless, and she could go only a little faster than the current of the river.

On she went, shooting right and left, through the Northern fleet, and she actually escaped because she had not been expected and because only one of the Northern vessels had steam up. Farragut was greatly cast down over this, and that very night took his ships down the river past Vicksburg in order to destroy the Arkansas. The Arkansas had been moored in a sheltered place, and Farragut failed to destroy her, although his vessels shot at her as they passed down. Farragut had five men killed and sixteen wounded in this second passage of Vicksburg, while Davis, who remained above the city, had thir-

teen killed and thirty-four wounded in the action with the batteries.

His ships needing repairs and his coal supply being short, Farragut went back to New Orleans and took charge of affairs on the lower Mississippi and on the Gulf. On October 1, 1862, the command of the squadron on the upper Mississippi, which up to this time, by a curious arrangement, had been part of the army, was transferred to the navy, and Commander David D. Porter, Farragut's old friend, was placed in charge. Farragut spent the winter in operations along the Gulf, and Porter remained up the Mississippi to help Grant capture Vicksburg and finally to open the river. Corpus Christi and Galveston were captured through Farragut's efforts, but Galveston had been retaken by the Southern forces. It will be seen, therefore, that Farragut had not only received a check when he ran by the batteries on Vicksburg the previous July, in pursuit of the Arkansas, but that he had not been entirely successful during the winter in his other operations.

Early in March, 1863, Farragut came up the river again to look after affairs. The South had strongly fortified Port Hudson by this time, and here Farragut fought another sharp battle. He decided to run by the batteries, as he had done at Vicksburg. He arranged six of his vessels in pairs, leaving one, the Mississippi, to follow along by herself. The batteries

at Port Hudson were very strong, and fully one hundred feet above the river. The channel was crooked, and it was therefore very difficult to pass the place. Lashed to Farragut's flagship, the Hartford, was the small boat Albatross. Six mortar schooners having begun the fight at eleven o'clock at night, Farragut started up the river. A thick bank of smoke covered the stream, and Farragut had little difficulty in getting by the batteries. His ship ran aground at the bend just above the earthworks, but he got free and had only one man killed. Following him were the Richmond and Genesee lashed together. They were about past the last battery when a shot entered the engine room of the Richmond and blew open a safety valve. So much steam escaped that the Richmond and the Genesee couldn't get up the river and had to drift past the batteries again. The Monongahela and Kineo were third in line. A shot broke the Kineo's rudder and the Monongahela ran aground. The Monongahela finally got off, but her engine broke down, and these two ships drifted below out of action. The Mississippi then came along all by herself. She, too, ran aground at the bend opposite the last battery. She had no vessel to help pull her off, and she remained hard and fast for thirty-five minutes under a terrible fire. Her captain ordered her guns to be spiked and thrown into the river; the sick and wounded were lowered into boats, and the ship was

set on fire and abandoned. It was a sad end for a famous vessel. The Mississippi had been the flagship of Perry when he opened Japan to civilization a few years before. In this fight at Port Hudson Farragut lost one hundred and fourteen killed and wounded.

Although Farragut had succeeded in passing the batteries at Port Hudson, this was another check, for really only two of his vessels had succeeded in getting up the river. With his two vessels and one that had come down the river from Porter's squadron, he did some fighting between Port Hudson and Vicksburg, but it was of little importance. In the latter part of April Porter came down the river, running by the batteries at Vicksburg and Grand Gulf, as will be told in the next chapter, and on May 2, 1863, Farragut gave him command of the Mississippi from Port Hudson north. Farragut then joined his fleet below Port Hudson, going overland to reach his vessels. Port Hudson and Grand Gulf and Vicksburg were still in possession of the South, and practically all that Farragut had accomplished in his brilliant campaign on the lower Mississippi, lasting for nearly a year, was to open the river as far as Port Hudson. He had captured New Orleans, and his victory over the forts below it had been complete, because they had surrendered a few days after New Orleans fell. The other contests might

be called drawn battles, but Farragut in going by the batteries really won a victory in each case, because he made it possible for Porter, in 1863, to finish up the work that he began and conducted so fearlessly.



Attack on Grand Gulf.

CHAPTER V.

DOWN THE MISSISSIPPI—HELPING THE ARMY.

Soon after the civil war began it was seen that the North would have to construct a fleet of river war ships for use on the Mississippi and its many branches, if it expected to defeat the South. Such a fleet would prevent the South from invading the North, and would assist the army of the North in invading the South. It would also keep the Southern rivers open to a great extent, so that the South could not get supplies for its army from the western side of the Mississippi River. Those river war ships had to be of a kind never seen before. They had to be shallow and flat, so as to move on the rivers when the waters were low. They had to carry guns as large as the guns that ocean-going war ships carried. They had to be protected with a crude kind of armor, because the fighting they had to do was to be at short range.

For these reasons the river war ships were curious-looking things. They were generally rectangular in shape, the hull being low in the water. From the

four sides a thick sloping structure was raised, looking something like the sides of a roof. The wheels of these boats were at the rear and covered over by the roof. Most of the boats had iron plating, from one to three inches thick, around their sloping sides, which were backed with oak from two to three feet in thickness. The boilers and engines were generally put as far down in the hold of the vessels as possible. In the sloping sides there were cut windows or portholes through which the guns fired their shells.

For more than a year the river war ships were under the control of the army instead of the navy. It was a queer way of doing things, but seemed best at the time. Commander John Rodgers reported, by orders from Washington, for duty to General John C. Frémont in the West, and began to create the river fleet by buying, at Cincinnati, three small boats, which were changed into war ships. On August 7, 1861, a contract was signed with James B. Eads, the engineer afterward famous, to build seven river war ships in sixty-five days. It has been said that when the contract was signed the birds were flying in the trees of which these ships were made. Eads also fixed over a river snagboat—a snagboat was a vessel used to catch the floating limbs of trees that came down the river—and by September, 1861, the North had quite a little fleet assembled at Cairo, Ill., for

service up and down the Mississippi, Ohio, and their branches.

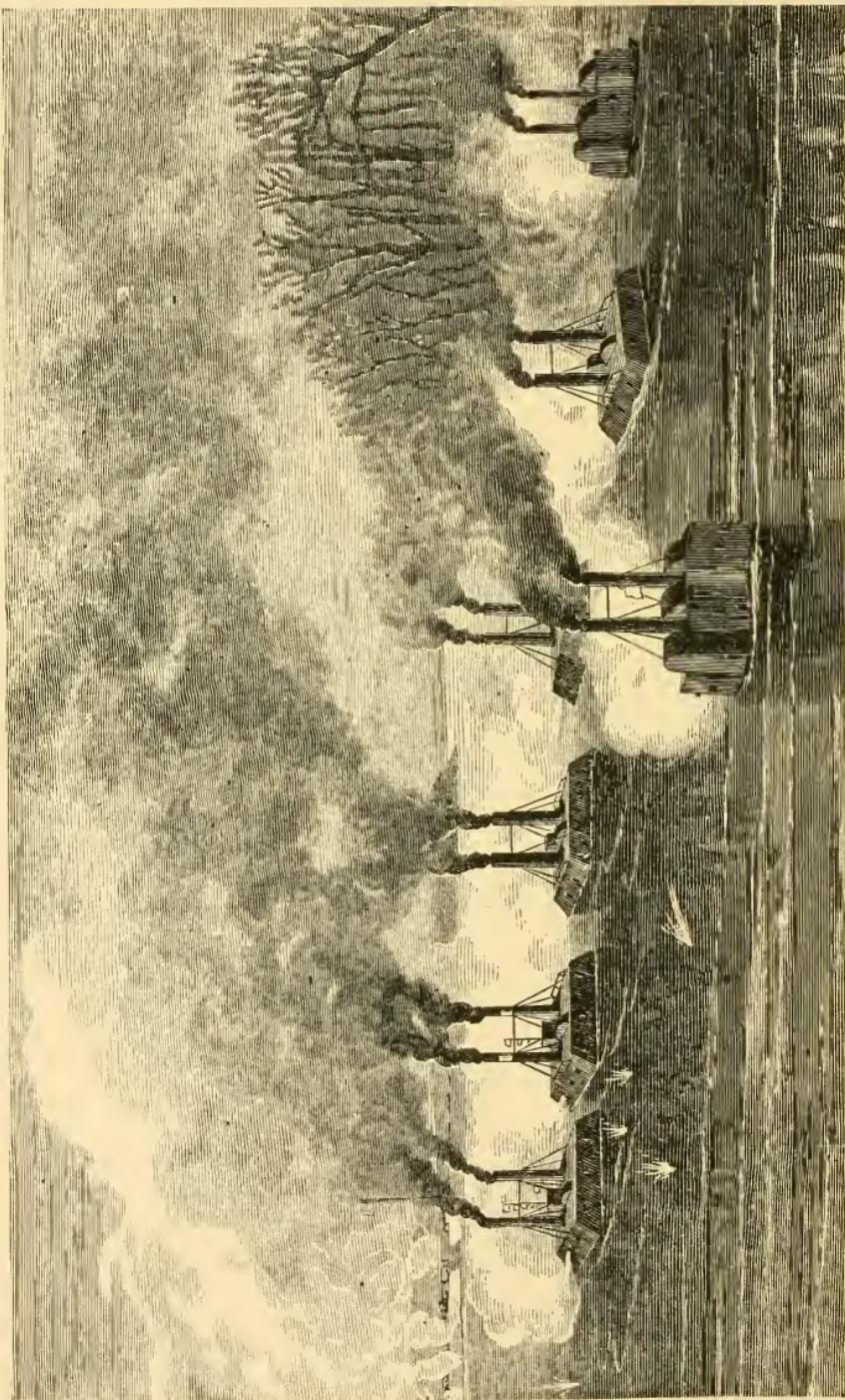
Captain A. H. Foote was appointed to command



the flotilla. He arrived on September 6, 1861, and four days later came the first fight in which these

river boats were engaged. It took place at Norfolk, Mo., eight miles below Cairo, where General Grant had gone to drive out a Southern force. Two of Foote's ships shelled the Southern artillery and cavalry, and made them flee. The next fight in which they took part was at Belmont, Mo., opposite Columbus, Ky. Grant had gone to Belmont with four thousand soldiers, but the South had seven thousand men there before the battle ended, help having arrived from Kentucky, and Grant was forced to retreat. The gunboats shelled the Southern troops and drove them off while Grant's forces were being taken on some transports. Had it not been for the two Northern vessels, Tyler and Lexington, which supported him, Grant would probably have been beaten badly, and might have been captured.

It was not until February, 1862, that what might be called the first real fight of the river flotilla occurred. Up the Tennessee River, just south of the Kentucky line, the South had erected Fort Henry. Twelve miles across the country, on the Cumberland River, it had erected Fort Donelson. On February 2d Foote started up the Tennessee River with seven war ships, escorting the transports carrying Grant's troops. Foote had four ironclads—the St. Louis, which was the first ironclad the United States had, the Essex, Carondelet, and Cincinnati—and three small gunboats—the Conestoga, Tyler,



Bombardment of Fort Henry.

Tyler.

Conestoga.

Essex.
Lexington.

Cincinnati.

Carondelet.

De Kalb.

and Lexington. The troops were landed at Padueah, below Fort Henry. On the next day a flood came down the river and swept away some torpedoes that had been placed there to blow up the Northern boats. The time for the advance came on February 6th. Foote told the captains of his boats that every shot they fired cost the Government eight dollars, and therefore they must be careful not to waste Government property. Each of the four large boats could fire only three guns from its bow, twelve guns in all, while the fort could fire twenty guns. The large boats ranged themselves in a line across the river, and the Cincinnati fired three shells so as to measure the distance to the fort.

“There goes twenty-four dollars wasted,” said a man who had heard Foote tell his captains to be careful about the use of powder and shot.

The little boats lay down the river behind the ironclads. The fight lasted about fifty minutes. It was furious from the start. A shot from the fort struck the Essex and pierced the boiler. At once the ship was filled with scalding steam. Twenty-nine men were scalded terribly, and nearly one half of them died. Most of the other war ships were struck many times, but only two men were killed and nine wounded on these vessels. As the Essex was drifting out of action, one of her seamen, who had been scalded and was dying, heard some one say that the

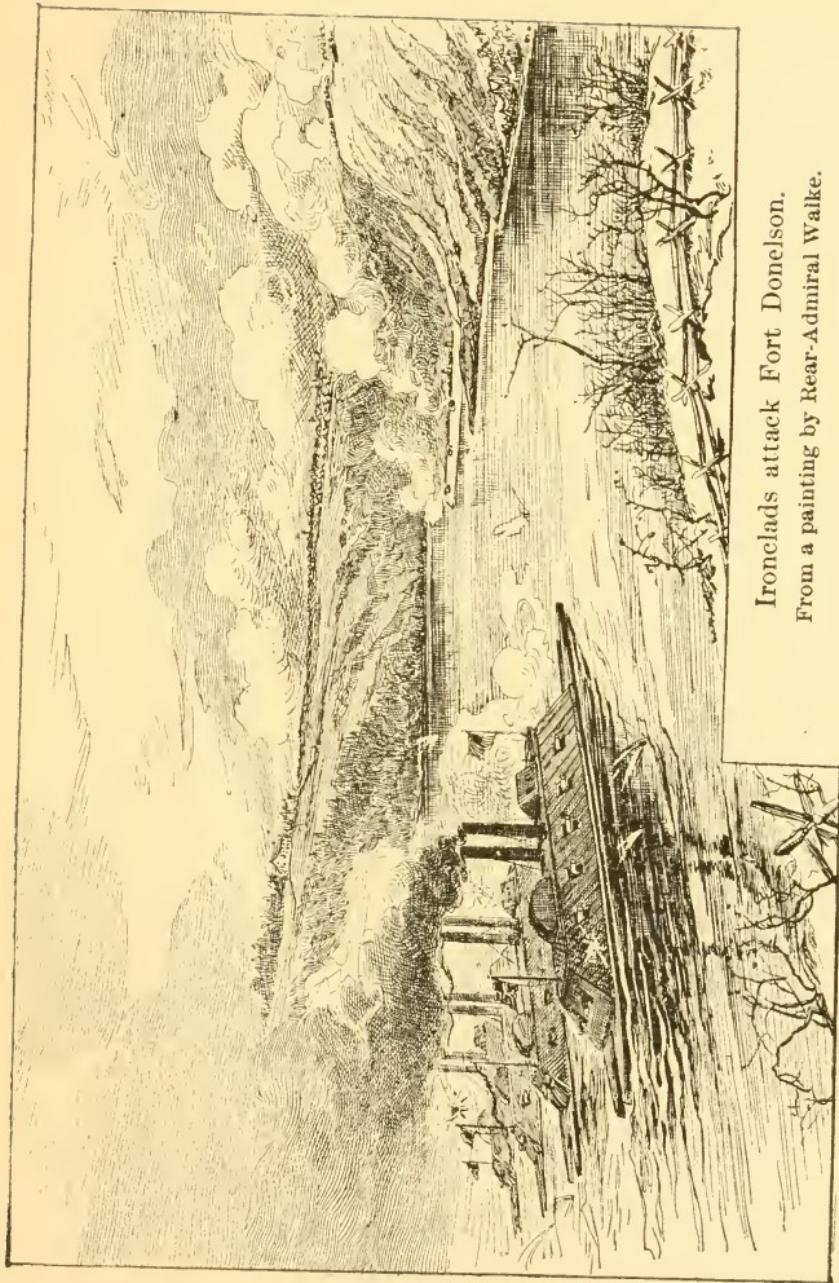
fort had surrendered. He leaped to his feet and exclaimed:

“Surrender! I must see that with my own eyes before I die.”

Then the poor fellow rushed on deck and sank to his knees shouting “Glory to God!” He died in a few hours.

General Tilghman, who commanded Fort Henry, surrendered, but more than twenty-five hundred of his men escaped across the country to Fort Donelson. Grant and his forces did not arrive until after the surrender, and so it was a naval victory entirely. Some of the smaller boats of Foote’s flotilla then went up the Tennessee and destroyed some Southern steamers and other property.

Grant’s next move was against Fort Donelson. This was a very strong earthwork. Foote and his fleet went around by the Ohio and came up the Cumberland to help Grant. The Carondelet, under command of Captain Walke, one of the bravest naval officers in the war, arrived on February 12th below Fort Donelson, and on that day and the next shelled the earthworks while Grant was coming up on land. Foote arrived on February 13th, with the St. Louis, Louisville, and Pittsburg, and the next afternoon the ships advanced to attack the fort. They went up to within four hundred yards. A shot struck the pilot house of the St. Louis, and the flying splinters



Ironclads attack Fort Donelson.

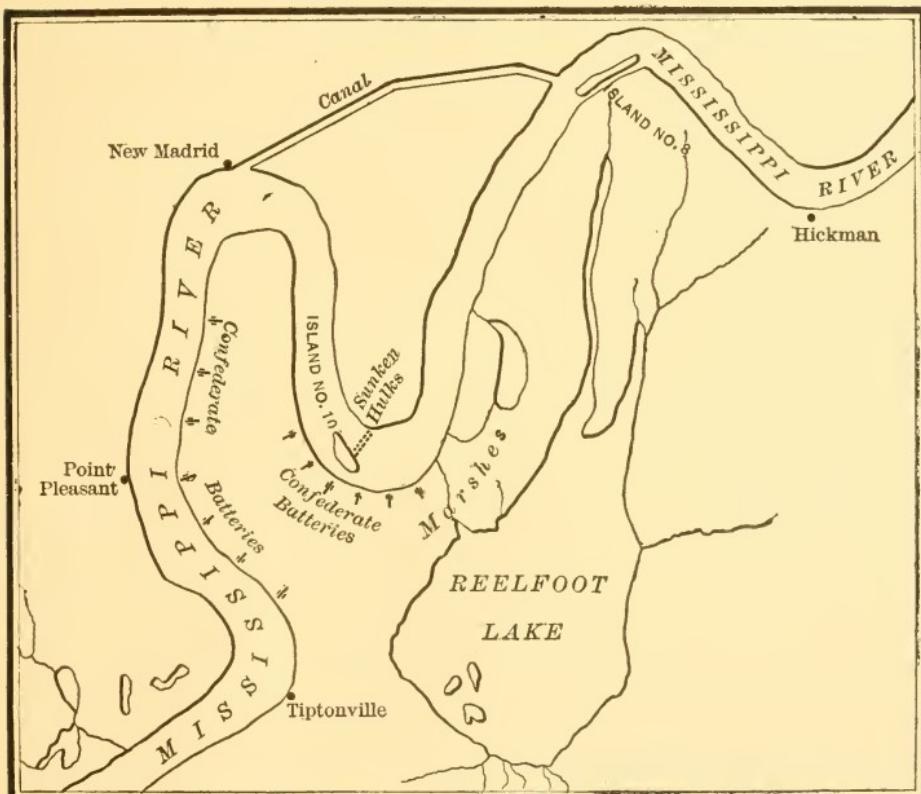
From a painting by Rear-Admiral Walké.

wounded Foote in the arm and foot. Another shot cut the tiller ropes of the Louisville, and soon the St. Louis and Louisville drifted out of action. The Pittsburg and Carondolet were also so badly damaged that they had to retire. It was a naval defeat. Fifty-four men had been killed or wounded, and three out of the four pilots on the ironclads were wounded mortally. Grant captured the fort on February 16th, and the fall of Fort Donelson was an army victory.

The Ohio and the rivers flowing into it from the south were now in control of the North, and the time had come for an advance down the Mississippi. Directly opposite the dividing line between Kentucky and Tennessee, and in a bend of the river, was an island called Island No. 10. The Southern forces had fallen back as far as this and had fortified it. A barrier of sunken vessels stretched from the island to the shore on the north side of the bend. On the south side of the island were four batteries with twenty-three guns, and on the Tennessee shore were six batteries with thirty-two guns. Foote and his fleet arrived above the island early in March, 1862. General Pope, of the Northern army, had cut off the retreat of the Southern forces below Island No. 10, except in one place, and he wanted to have troops sent down the river to aid him in shutting off the retreat completely. A canal was dug across the swamps above the island to cut off the bend in the river, so that the

transports might be taken through that way, but the plan was not successful.

Foote held back for a long time, but finally, after



Island No. 10 and Batteries.

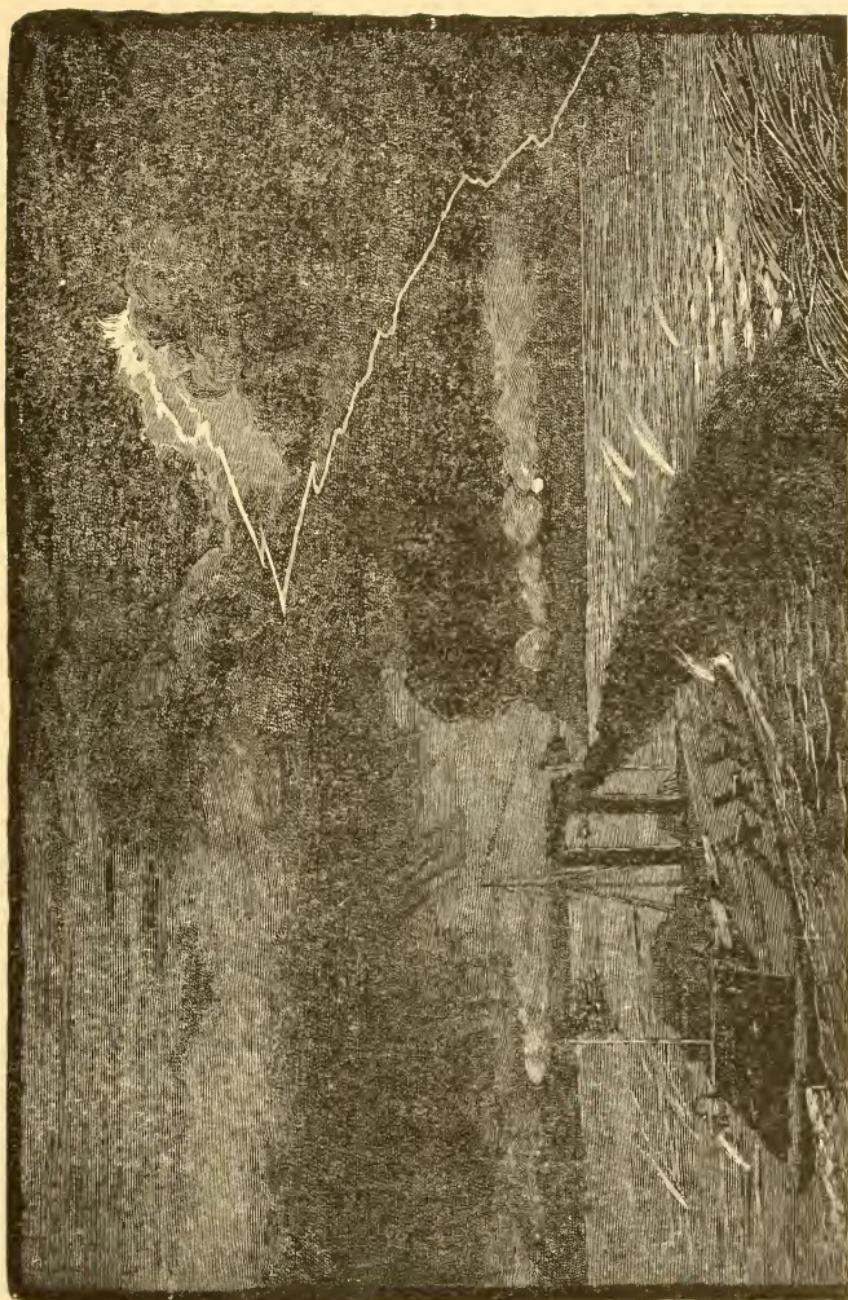
the guns in the battery on the Tennessee shore had been spiked and put out of order by some of the Northern sailors who had stolen down there in small boats in the night, and after the floating battery had been cut loose from its moorings, he told Walke, commanding the Carondelet, to go ahead. Walke

put extra planks on the deck of his ship, ran chains along its sides, placed eighteen-inch ropes about the pilot house, and also used bales of hay for further protection against the shells of the Southern batteries. He started on the night of April 10th, in a violent thunderstorm. It was as black as ink on the river. The lightning flashes helped to show the way. Walke had placed the exhaust steam pipe in the wheelhouse instead of in the smokestack, as was the custom, so that the noise from the exhaust should not attract attention. The soot in the smokestack became dry and hot as a result, and when the Carondolet was opposite the first battery on the island the soot took fire and blazed up and became a flaming torch. It made the boat a splendid target for the Southern gunners. The cannon roared. The flashes of the guns mingled with the flashes of lightning. The booming of the guns was added to the peals of thunder. Walke did not reply to the shots, and finally slipped past the island in safety. At one time during the journey a flash of lightning showed to the pilot and the leadsman, the only two men who stood out in the open, that the ship was about to run ashore. Had it not been for this lightning flash, the Carondelet would have been aground in a few seconds, directly under the guns of a battery. Island No. 10 surrendered in a few days with five thousand men.

The next fortification on the Mississippi was at

Commander Walke runs the batteries at Island No. 10.

From a painting by Rear-Admiral Walke.



Fort Pillow, halfway between Island No. 10 and Memphis, but before an attack was made on it two of the small vessels of Foote's flotilla, the Tyler and the Lexington, went up the Tennessee River far beyond Fort Henry to Pittsburg Landing, where they helped Grant out of a tight place on April 6th. Grant was outnumbered, and his troops were being swept back in confusion from their base on the river. The advancing Southern forces had to go through a ravine, and the Tyler and Lexington hurled their shells into this ravine furiously and checked the Southern soldiers. Hundreds of men were killed. The two boats kept throwing shells into the camp of the Southern men all night long. The battle was renewed the next day, and the Southern troops retreated.

It was on April 14, 1862, that Foote's flotilla anchored six miles above Fort Pillow. Every day Foote sent a mortar boat down the river, with a war ship to guard it, to shell Fort Pillow. On May 9th Foote's wound had become so serious that he had to give up his command, and Captain Charles H. Davis took his place. The next day the Cincinnati went down the river with mortar boat No. 16 for the usual bombardment. Early in the year the Southern leaders had constructed what they called a river defense fleet, consisting of fourteen small boats plated in front with iron. Their boilers and machinery were protected by cotton bales. There were eight of these small vessels

below Fort Pillow on the morning of May 10th, when the Cincinnati went down with the mortar boat. Little attention had been paid to these Southern boats, because they had never attacked the Northern vessels. No sooner had the mortar boat fired its first shell into Fort Pillow than the Southern boats were seen coming up the river. The Cincinnati ran out into mid-stream to meet them all alone. The Southern vessel General Bragg ran up close along the Arkansas shore, turned, and ran her bow into the Cincinnati. The Cincinnati threw a broadside into the Bragg, and she drifted out of action. Two other Southern boats, the Price and Sumter, also ran into the Cincinnati, and by that time the vessels of the Northern fleet, three miles away, came hurrying to the scene. The Cincinnati was so badly damaged that she ran into shoal water and sank. The Carondelet put the Southern vessel Price out of action, and the Northern vessel Mound City sent the Southern vessel Van Dorn hurrying out of the fight. The Mound City was so badly damaged in collision with the Van Dorn that she had to be run ashore to save her. There were five more Southern vessels in fighting condition against three Northern vessels at this time, but the Southern vessels withdrew down the river just when they had a chance to gain a victory.

The Northern fleet was strengthened soon after this by seven river steamers which had been made

into rams on the Ohio River. The Northern army had made such advances that the Southern forces left Fort Pillow, and another step was then taken in opening the Mississippi from the north. The Southern vessels had retired to Memphis, and on June 5, 1862, the Northern fleet anchored above the city. The people of the city thronged the water front the next morning to see the fight between the Northern and Southern fleets. It was to be a rare show for them. While the two lines of vessels were shooting at each other, two of the Northern rams, which had just joined the fleet, the Queen of the West and the Monarch, dashed through the smoke and into the line of the Southern ships. Colonel Ellet, in command of the Queen of the West, struck the Southern vessel Lovell and sank her. The Southern ram Beauregard struck the Queen of the West, and that vessel had to be run ashore to save her. The Southern rams Price and Beauregard then tried to strike the Northern ram Monarch, but she slipped away from them and they ran into each other. The Price had to go to shore to keep from sinking. The Monarch turned and struck the Beauregard, just as a shot from the Northern vessel Benton pierced the Beauregard's boiler. The Southern vessel surrendered at once, and sank while she was being towed ashore, many of her scalded crew being drowned. A shot so injured the Southern vessel Little Rebel that she also had to run to shore.

Another shot sunk the Southern ship Thomson also, and the Southern boats Bragg and Sumter then surrendered. The Van Dorn was the only one of the Southern ships that escaped. The Northern vessels had only four men wounded. The loss on the Southern vessels was never known.

It was the first naval battle in which the ram was used extensively, and it is worth noting that three vessels were practically destroyed by ramming within fifteen minutes after the fight began in earnest. With the victory at Memphis, the Mississippi River itself was open as far as Vicksburg from the north. On July 1, 1862, Flag-Officer Davis with his river war ships arrived above Vicksburg, and there met Farragut, who had come up the river with his fleet. But the river was by no means open to the sea. In a few days Farragut was to run down the river again, in pursuit of the ram Arkansas, while the Southern forces were to continue the work of building forts along the stream, and the task of opening the river finally occupied more than a year.

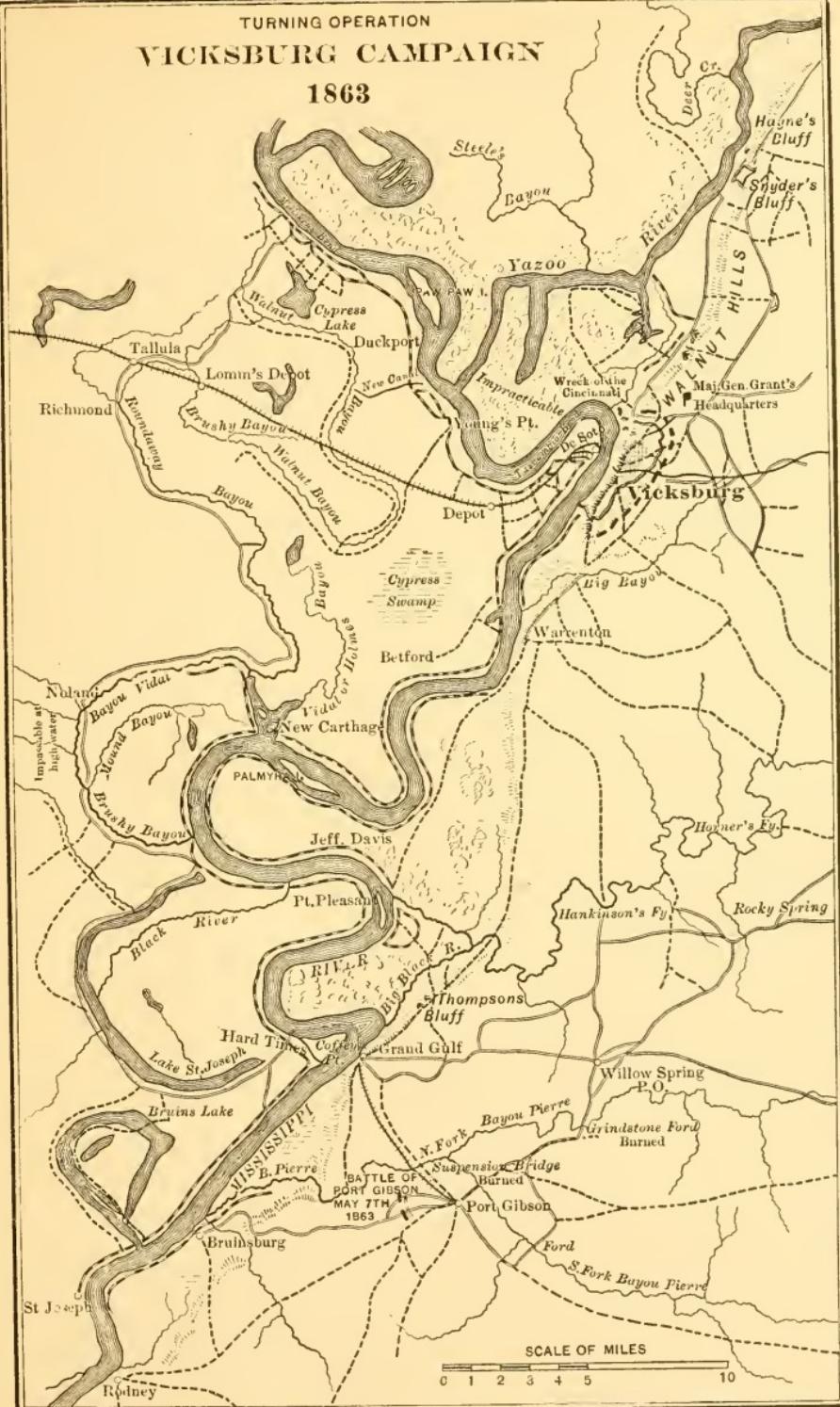
Many trips were made up the various rivers that flow into the Mississippi between Memphis and New Orleans about this time, which called for great bravery from the Northern sailors, and some of which were not entirely successful. One of these trips was up the White River, in Arkansas, where at Charles City an attack was made on Southern earthworks.

Three of the river fleet, with a transport carrying an Indiana regiment, appeared there on June 29th, two days before Davis reached Vicksburg. A shell from the earthworks entered the boiler of the Mound City, the leading boat of the expedition, and only three officers and twenty-two men of the one hundred and seventy-five on board escaped unhurt. More than forty men were drowned or shot when they jumped into the water, and thirty-two died of their wounds or the scalds from the steam. The regiment, however, which had been landed, carried the earthworks by storm, and the gunboats that were uninjured went sixty-three miles farther up the river and opened it. Davis was then made a rear admiral.

Early in January, 1863, a force was sent up the Arkansas River to capture a fort called Arkansas Post. Nearly five thousand troops were taken along, but before they were landed the vessels of the expedition, on January 9th and 10th, shot the earthworks to pieces and they surrendered.

General Grant had arrived opposite Vicksburg on January 30, 1863, and he and Porter formed a plan to get control of the Mississippi between Vicksburg and Port Hudson, which had by this time been well fortified. Porter sent Colonel Charles R. Ellet with the ram Queen of the West down past Vicksburg on the morning of February 2d. On the way down, and under a heavy fire, Ellet stopped and rammed the

TURNING OPERATION
VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN
1863



steamer Vicksburg, which was moored to the bank directly under the forts, and then passed on without losing a man. A few days later Porter then sent the Northern vessel Indianola down. Ellet about this time took the Queen of the West up the Red River, and had to abandon his vessel while attacking a fort near Gordon's Landing. He escaped in a prize he had captured. The Southerners fixed up the Queen of the West, which had been abandoned because a shot had burst its steam pipe, and with two or three of their rams went after the Indianola, which was trying to escape up the Mississippi to Porter's fleet. A fight occurred between the Indianola on one side and the Queen of the West and the Webb on the other, and the Indianola was run ashore to keep her from sinking.

The Southern forces took possession of the Indianola and were repairing her when Porter played an amusing trick on them. He took a coal barge and placed some pork barrels on her to resemble smokestacks, built a fire in the barge, and sent her drifting down the river. She looked like a terrible monster. The Southern workmen on the Indianola thought that they and the Indianola were about to be wiped out of existence. The Southern officer in charge of the ram set the two big guns of that vessel muzzle to muzzle and fired them, and two days later, while the dummy war ship was fast aground, they blew up

the Indianola in their fright, destroying her completely.

Late in February, 1863, Porter tried to get control of that country east of the Mississippi through which the Yazoo River flows from north to south, and which was filled with many small branching streams. He really tried to send some of his war ships overland in this task. He had the levee in the Mississippi River cut a few miles below Helena, Ark., on the Mississippi side, and let the water flow across country into Moon Lake, from which he ordered part of his ships to go by the Coldwater and Tallahatchie Rivers to capture Fort Pemberton above the town of Yazoo. It was nearly a month after the levee was cut before the ten war ships and six thousand troops who went with them were fairly started. For four days they struggled against overhanging trees, driftwood, and the great number of trees which the Southern troops felled across the streams. Some of the vessels lost their smokestacks, one of them lost her wheel, and all were damaged by striking the roots in the water and the trees overhead. After a week's hard work the boats reached Fort Pemberton, but they were obliged to retreat, having lost between twenty and thirty men killed and wounded. The journey back to the Mississippi was even more difficult than that to Fort Pemberton, but finally, on March 18th, the vessels got back. It was at this time, on March 14,

1863, that Farragut had run past the works at Port Hudson on his second trip up the river.

Two days later, on March 16th, Porter thought that he would try an overland trip himself into the Yazoo country with his vessels, so as to reach Yazoo from the south. With thirteen vessels he entered the swampy country through a bayou, and foot by foot tried to force his way through the shallow water and among the thick growth of trees. He actually had to dig a channel through the swamps for his boats, and cut a pathway above the water through the trees by which he could pass. The Southern forces cut down trees in front of him and behind him, and kept shooting at him in small parties, and he was four days in going a few miles. Then he tried to back out. This was even harder work than trying to go ahead, and he would probably have lost all his vessels had not General Sherman, who was in that region with his forces, come to his rescue, driving the Southern land forces away.

Porter returned to his station above Vicksburg, and immediately began to prepare to run by the batteries there, following Farragut's example, so that he might work with General Grant, who was below Vicksburg trying to capture the city. He lashed coal barges to his vessels, and under a furious fire ran by the forts in safety on the night of April 16, 1863. The vessels were struck by about one in ten of the five

hundred shots that were fired at them, but there was no loss of life. A week later the army transports ran down the river and most of Porter's vessels by this time were below Vicksburg. A short distance below Vicksburg the Southerners had fortified Grand Gulf. The forts were at a bend in the river and were on bluffs seventy-five feet high. It was necessary to capture this place before Grant could take Vicksburg. It had become one of the strongest positions of the South on the river. On April 29th Porter attacked the forts. The battle lasted five and one half hours, and Porter retired with a loss of eighteen killed and fifty-six wounded.

Being unable to destroy the forts, Porter tried Farragut's tactics again, and on that night ran by the place, losing only one man. Grant and Porter now worked together, and on May 3d Grand Gulf was given up by the Southern forces. Grant and Porter at once advanced toward Vicksburg, and began a series of attacks on the place, which finally fell on July 4th. Five days later Port Hudson fell, and then the Mississippi was really open from the Ohio to the Gulf, after a campaign that had lasted more than a year.

There was more or less fighting for a year and a half afterward up the various streams that flow into the Mississippi, especially on the west side, but except in one case they were small contests. The one exception was what is known as the Red River ex-

pedition. The French had taken the city of Mexico, and were trying to get Texas to secede from the South. The North decided to send General Banks up the Red River, and in March, 1864, Porter, with his fleets and the transports carrying the army, started to take possession of the country in and around Shreveport, near the boundary between Texas and Louisiana. The expedition reached Alexandria on March 15th, and established a garrison. Passing on, there was some sharp fighting, but the Southern forces were repulsed along the banks, and the boats finally came to a place where there were two rapids. The water was very low, but after much hard work ten of the gunboats and thirty of the transports passed up the river. On account of the dry season the river fell rapidly, and in a few days it was seen that it would be impossible to go up the stream very much farther. There was so very little water above the rapids by this time that the boats could not come down again, and it seemed as if the entire force was caught in a very bad trap.

There was one man on the expedition, however, who solved the problem of rescuing the boats. He was Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph Bailey, of a Wisconsin regiment. He had been a lumberman, and knew how to get large rafts over shallow places in streams. He took two thousand Maine soldiers who knew something about lumbering, and built dams across the

river, using branches of trees and logs, which he placed in cribs. He left an opening one hundred and fifty feet wide in the middle of the river, which at the place of these rapids was seven hundred and fifty feet across. He intended to sink some coal barges in the opening. The water had backed up to a depth of more than six feet in the eight days he had been at work, and just as the coal barges were being sunk the pressure swept them away. The gunboat Lexington was only a short distance above the opening in the dam through which the water was now sweeping in a great flood, and Admiral Porter shouted to the captain of the vessel to go through. The Lexington started at once; a great hush fell upon the thousands of soldiers upon the banks, but after much tossing and swaying the vessel passed through in safety. Cheer after cheer greeted the boat and her crew. Three of the other vessels followed the Lexington. Bailey built two small dams above the rapids and finally succeeded in raising the water over the rapids five feet, and all the flotilla passed down out of the trap. This practically ended the warfare on a large scale on the Mississippi and its branches.

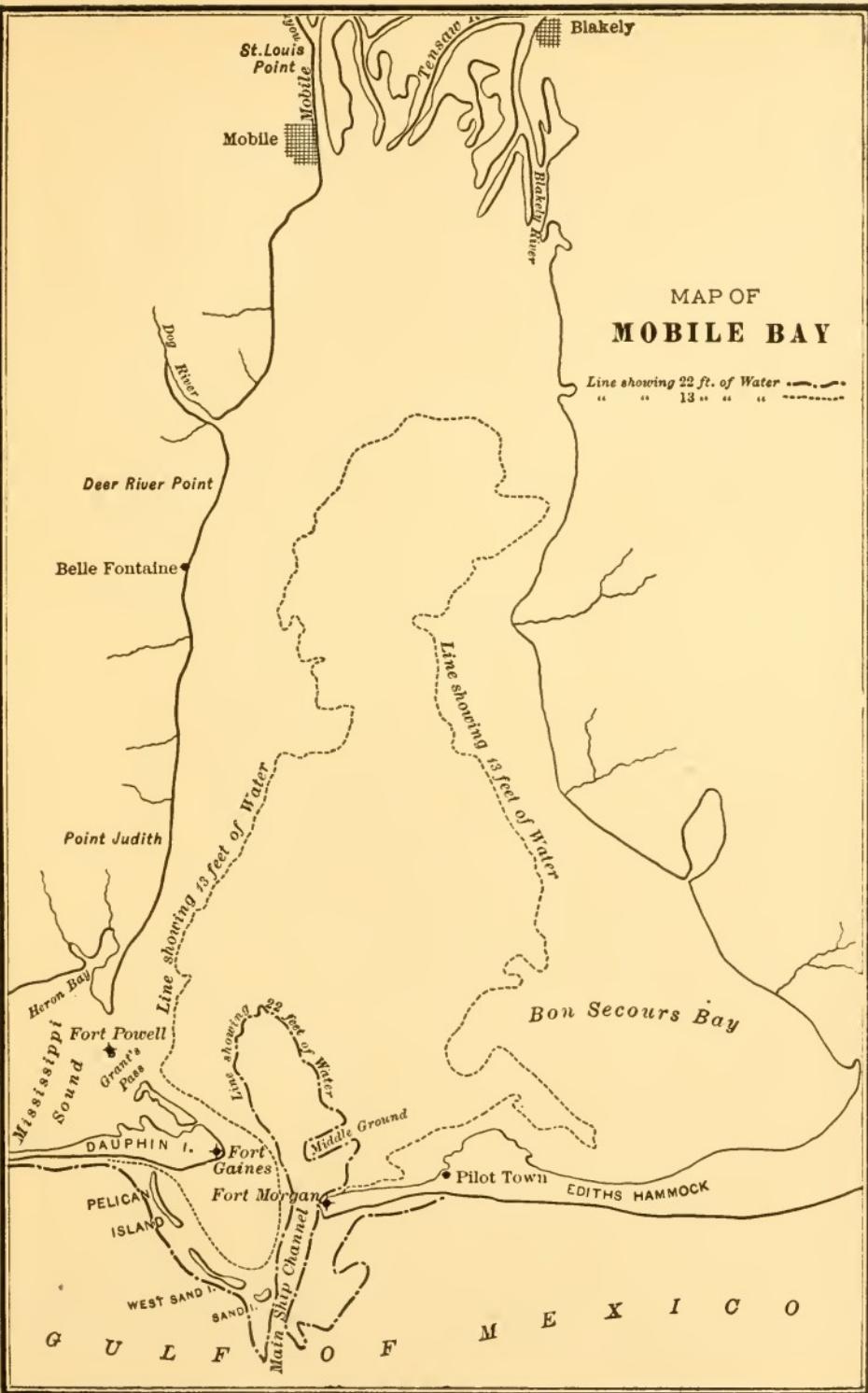
CHAPTER VI.

THE GREAT FIGHT AT MOBILE.

AFTER Farragut had left the Mississippi, his chief work was to get control of the various harbors in the Gulf of Mexico, still in possession of the South. He made a short visit to the North, also, for a rest. On October 15, 1862, having returned to his work, he reported to Washington that Galveston, Corpus Christi, and Sabine Pass had been occupied by his forces without bloodshed. At the end of November he wrote:

“We shall spoil unless we have a fight occasionally.”

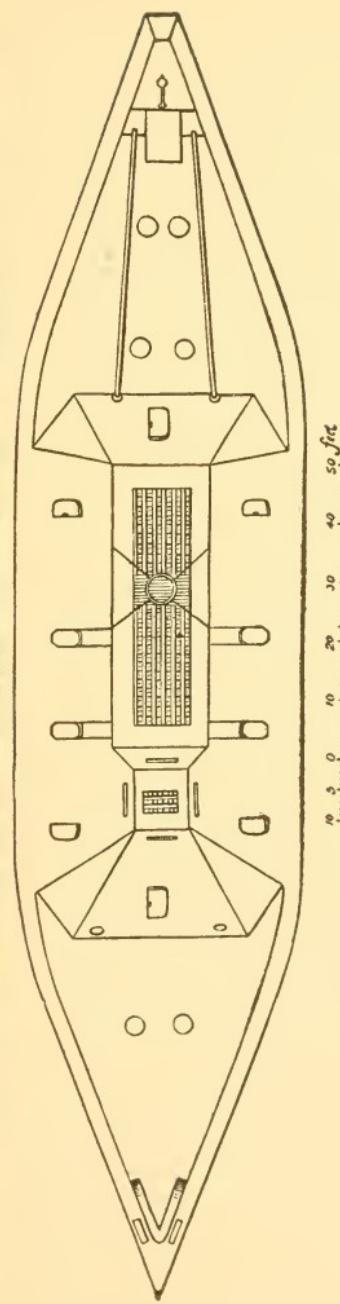
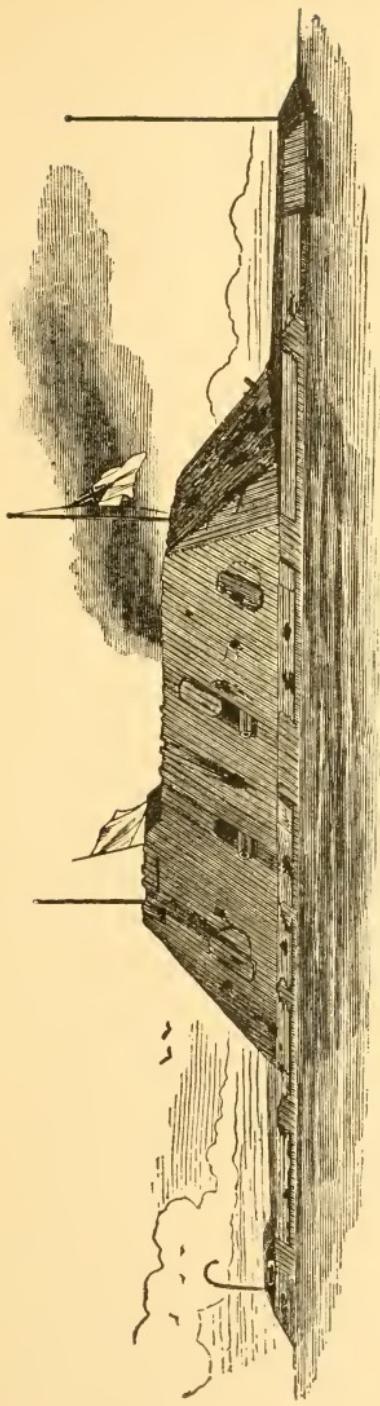
The fight did come very soon, and it resulted in a victory for the South. Two small river steamers, assisted by a land force, attacked four steamers of the North and a garrison of Northern soldiers at Galveston, early on the morning of January 1, 1863. The garrison was captured, and one of the Northern vessels, the Westfield, was blown up by her officers, and another, the Harriet Lane, was surrendered after her captain and executive officers had been killed. A



short time afterward Sabine Pass was also captured from the North. The Northern forces along the coast of Texas had been checked. Farragut then at once decided to strike the South its hardest blow in the waters of the Gulf. That task was to capture Mobile. It resulted in a victory for him. It was one of the greatest naval battles ever fought. No naval commander in history up to that time had ever had so powerful a fleet under him. It is upon the battle of Mobile Bay and his work in the Mississippi below New Orleans that the great fame of Farragut rests.

Mobile is at the head of a great pear-shaped and shallow bay. The entrance to the bay is thirty miles below the city. The channel at the entrance is two thousand feet wide. The distance from one point of land to the other at the entrance is about three miles. The channel runs close to the eastern side of the entrance, and there the South had a very strong fort and earthworks, called Fort Morgan. On the western entrance to the harbor was Fort Gaines, on Dauphin Island, and not far from it was a small fort called Fort Powell, on Tower Island. Fort Morgan was five-sided, and had forty guns in its main battery. It was also fortified with sand bags, and it was one of the strongest forts that the Northern vessels had to attack in the entire war. The other forts at the entrance to the harbor played only a small part in this fighting.

The South had long expected an attack on Mobile,



Deck plan of the Tennessee and her appearance after the battle.

and it began to build, late in 1863, another of the rams like the Merrimac. She was called the Tennessee. She was the strongest of the vessels of this kind, and did more fighting than any of them. She was two hundred and nine feet long, forty-eight feet wide, and drew fourteen feet of water. On the hull was built a structure with sloping sides. This was seventy-nine feet long and twenty-nine feet wide. It was called a casemate. The sides of this structure were made of twenty-five inches of wood, on which were placed iron armor plates six inches thick at the bow and five inches thick elsewhere. The hull of the vessel was armored for six feet under water, and a ridge or a knuckle stuck out from the vessel two feet under the water around its four sides. She carried six rifled guns. One fired from the bow and another from the stern, and there were two on each side. The shutters over the portholes for the guns were of iron five inches thick. She was a very strong vessel, but she had two great faults. One was that the chains which controlled the rudder were on the outside of the boat where they could be shot away, and the other was the poor engine that was in the boat. The highest speed the Tennessee could make was six knots an hour.

This vessel was finished in May, 1864, and had to be fairly lifted over a mud bank on the way from the river where she was built to the bay, a short dis-

tance below. In addition to the Tennessee the South had three small gunboats in Mobile Bay. They were the Morgan, Gaines, and Selma. Farragut had arrived finally in front of Mobile on January 18, 1864. He had to wait six months before he had secured all the vessels that he wanted and before the army was ready to assist him in the work around Mobile. On the night of May 18th the Tennessee had come down the harbor to attack his fleet, but she ran on a mud bank, and when she got off was towed near Fort Morgan, where she waited for Farragut to make the attack.

The South took other measures to keep Farragut out of the bay. Three rows of torpedoes were planted across the channel. Forty-six of the torpedoes were made of beer kegs, and one hundred and thirty-four were made of tin. These torpedoes were supposed to explode when any vessel struck them. An open space, only one hundred yards wide and less than three hundred yards from the water battery at Fort Morgan, was left open for blockade runners and other friendly vessels to reach Mobile, and through this narrow space, directly under the guns of the large fort, Farragut had to pass. Some of the officers of the fleet had secured one of the torpedoes and had brought it to Farragut. He had disliked the use of torpedoes in war. The one that was brought him was placed on his cabin table and rolled off. It exploded as it struck

the floor, but did no damage. Farragut jumped up and said to the officer who brought it in:

"Young man, don't send any more of those infernal machines to me; I thought I was shot."

Late in July four monitors, for which Farragut had been waiting, arrived, and he at once decided to prepare for his attack. He ordered all the wooden vessels of his fleet to be protected with chains and bags of sand so far as possible. All the small boats were lowered on the side away from Fort Morgan, and nets were stretched to keep splinters from flying. Altogether Farragut had twenty-seven vessels. He placed his four monitors in the first division of the fleet. The second division consisted of fourteen wooden vessels. The remaining vessels of the fleet were left in a squadron by themselves outside the bay to bombard Fort Morgan, and did not attempt to enter with Farragut. Farragut wanted to place his flagship, the Hartford, immediately behind the line of monitors, but his officers persuaded him to allow the Brooklyn to take that position, because she had an attachment to the bow with which to catch the torpedoes. Farragut consented at last and went second in the division. Each of the large wooden vessels had a smaller one lashed to the side away from Fort Morgan, for protection to the smaller vessel and also to assist the larger vessel in case of accident to machinery.

On August 4th Farragut decided to make the

start early the next morning if the weather conditions were favorable. He wanted a southwest wind, so that the smoke would be blown from his ships against Fort Morgan. Before he went to bed on the night of August 4th he wrote to his wife:

“ I am going into Mobile in the morning, if God is my leader, as I hope he is, and in him I place my trust. If he thinks it is the place for me to die, I am ready to submit to his will. God bless and preserve you if anything should happen to me.”

Farragut did not sleep well, and when the orderly came in his room during the night he asked the direction of the wind. The orderly said it was southwest, and Farragut replied:

“ Very well, then we will go in in the morning.”

At 5.30 A. M. he and Drayton, the captain of his ship, had finished their breakfast, and Farragut quietly remarked:

“ Well, Drayton, we might as well get under way.”

Signals were hoisted immediately. The men in Fort Morgan and on the Southern ships saw them, and knew that the time had come for the great fight. The ram Tennessee was in command of Admiral Buchanan, who had commanded the Merrimac in the first day's fight of that vessel at Hampton Roads. Buchanan called his men together and said to them:

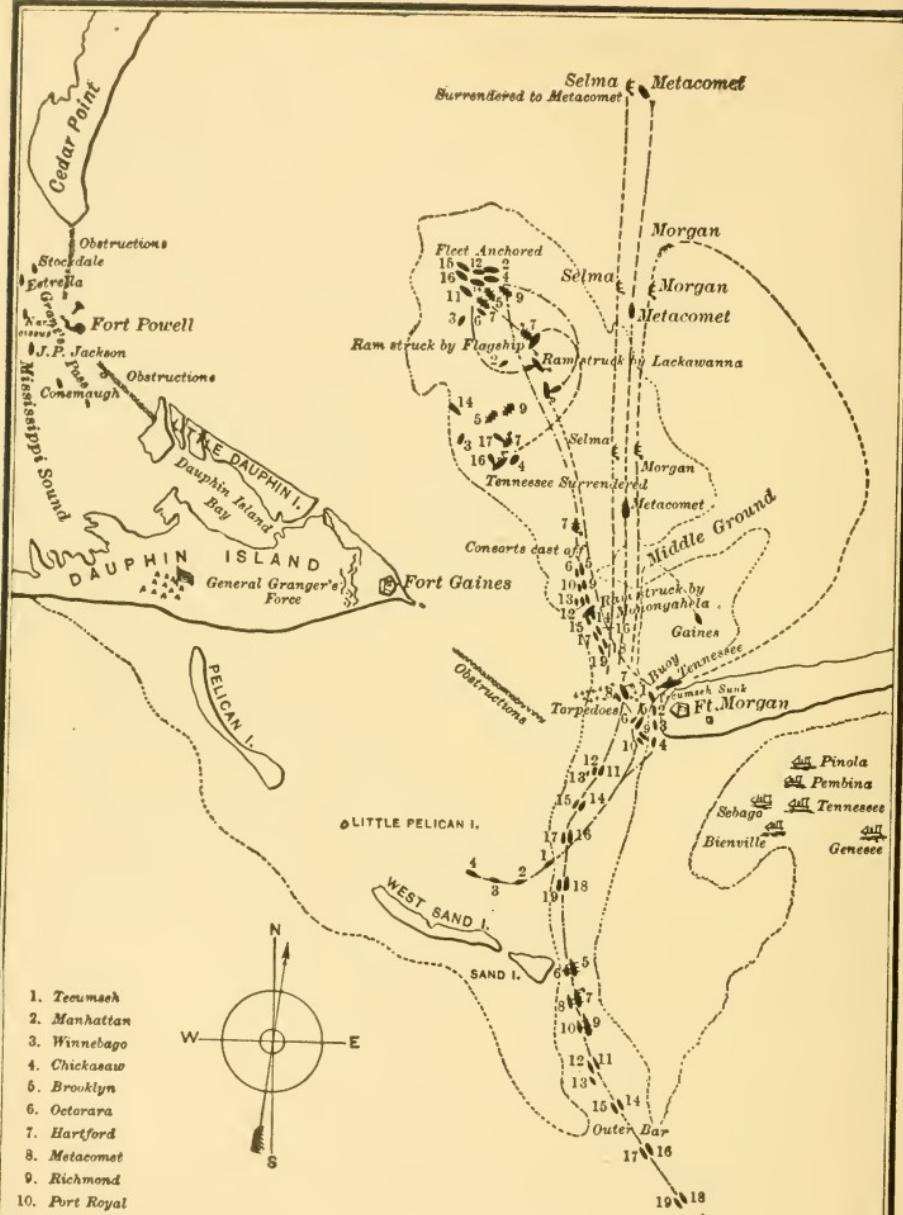


DIAGRAM OF THE
BATTLE OF
MOBILE BAY

PREPARED BY REAR-ADmirAL JOUETT.

"Now, men, the enemy is coming, and I want you to do your duty. If I fall, lay me on one side and go on with the fight and never mind me, but whip and sink the Yankees or fight until you sink yourselves, but do not surrender."

It was 6.47 o'clock when the first vessel of the Northern fleet, the monitor Tecumseh, fired at Fort Morgan. Slowly the Northern vessels approached the narrow opening off Fort Morgan, but it was not until 7.07 o'clock that the fort fired its first shot in reply. It struck the Hartford and killed nearly all of the crew at a gun. Almost instantly every gun in the fleet that could be brought to bear upon the fort was in action. There was a terrific fire. By this time the Tecumseh had approached the opening in the channel. There was a bend in the channel, and Captain Craven, of the Tecumseh, saw that he could not turn his unwieldy vessel if he went through the opening, which was marked by a buoy. The ram Tennessee had come out from behind Fort Morgan, and was headed for the Tecumseh. Craven paid little attention to the fort, and started to meet the ram. He said to his pilot:

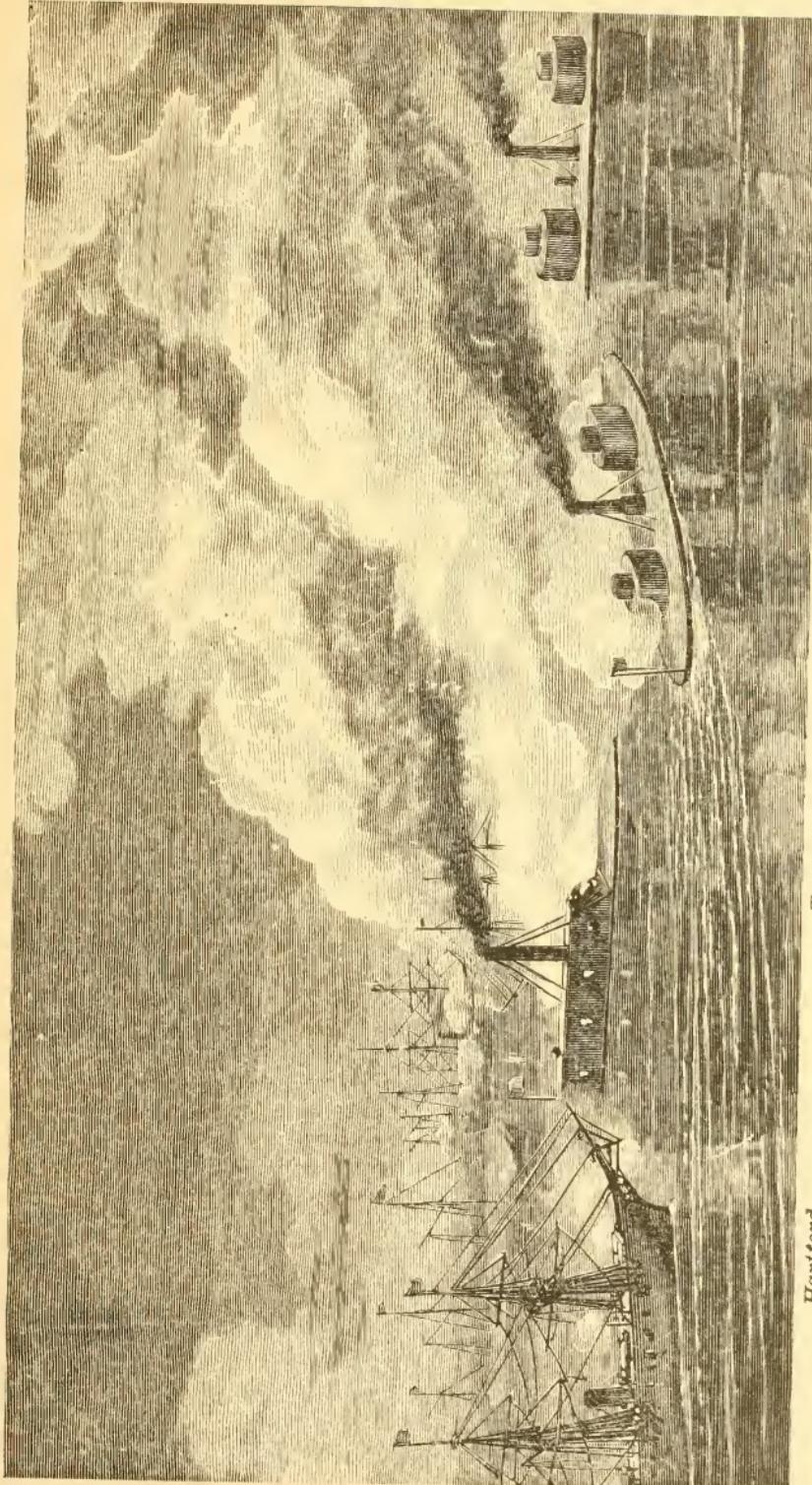
"It is impossible that the admiral means us to go inside the buoy; I can not turn my ship."

Craven knew no fear and did not hesitate, but started straight for the Tennessee across the line of torpedoes. Had he gone in the channel and stuck fast the day would have been a failure, because the

other ships could not have gone by. The rest of the fleet saw the Tecumseh going straight across the torpedo nest. For a time he seemed to be safe, and it was hoped that he might get through some opening, but suddenly there was a mighty roar and the bow of the Tecumseh was seen to be lifted in the air. Then it plunged into the water, and the stern of the vessel showed above the surface. The ship took a sharp dive and disappeared. Craven and his pilot John Collins started for the small opening in the deck from the pilot house. They reached there at the same time, and the brave man Craven showed how noble he was when he drew back and told the pilot to go first. There was only time for one of them to be saved and Craven said:

“ After you, pilot.”

Collins had scarcely reached the deck before the ship went down and Craven was drowned with ninety-two of his men. Some of the men on the other vessels of the fleet thought it was the Tennessee that had been sunk. They shouted that the Tennessee had gone down, and cheer after cheer went up from the Northern ships; but the cheers were soon silenced when word was passed that it was the Tecumseh. Farragut at once ordered a boat cleared away to rescue some of the men in the water, but a boat had already been sent. General Richard L. Page, who was in command of Fort Morgan, splen-



Hartford.

Tennessee.

Battle of Mobile Bay.

Monitors.

did man that he was, saw the small boat and ordered his men not to fire upon it because it was engaged in saving drowning men. After the Tecumseh had gone down the other monitors passed over the place where it had sunk and went past the torpedoes. They were ready then to fight the Tennessee or to help the rest of the fleet.

The Brooklyn now approached the narrow opening in the channel. Her captain saw some floats that looked like torpedoes, and he at once stopped his engines and hesitated about going in. Farragut was close behind on the Hartford, and it seemed as if there would be a collision. The Richmond was close behind the Hartford, and Farragut feared that it too would come up and get into the tangle. In his desire to see all that was going on, Farragut had climbed far up into the shrouds, and Captain Drayton, fearing that if he were wounded or killed he would be lost by falling overboard, sent Signal-Quartermaster Knowles up to lash Farragut to the shrouds. Farragut said to never mind him, but Knowles went ahead and tied him to the rigging. When the Brooklyn hesitated she swung round, and Farragut shouted to her captain:

“What’s the matter?”

“Torpedoes,” was the answer.

Farragut said not to mind the torpedoes, but to follow him, and then he showed what a great fighter

and sailor he was. He took his ship out of the line so as to avoid a collision with the Brooklyn, and headed straight for the torpedoes. Knowing the fate of the Tecumseh, every man on the fleet who saw Farragut making this dash expected to see his vessel blown to pieces. Fortunately the tin torpedoes across which Farragut drove his vessel had become rusted and the caps did not explode. The Hartford passed over the line in safety, and the Richmond, which had been following, avoided a collision with the Brooklyn by backing and then taking the path through which the Hartford had gone. The scene at this time was terrible. All the guns on ships and on shore were being fired as fast as possible, great clouds of smoke were drifting from the vessels to land, the noise was like a hundred thunderstorms put together, the men were stripped to their waists as they fought, and all the while officers were going among them saying, "Steady, boys, take your time." Men were being killed or wounded by the dozen, but no one faltered, from admiral to messenger boy.

The monitors, which had passed the torpedoes safely, ran close to the fort to try to silence the guns which were making sad havoc on the Hartford and Brooklyn. Every shot from the fort seemed to result in the death of some of the brave men on the large ships. At last Fort Morgan was passed. It required about an hour to accomplish this task. The Tennessee

was still up the bay, its fearless commander waiting to fight the entire Northern fleet. The Southern gunboats had begun to annoy the Hartford, which was now in the lead, and Farragut ordered the little vessel Metacomet, which had been lashed to the Hartford, to cut loose and destroy the small Southern ships. The Metacomet soon disabled the Gaines and drove the Morgan under the protection of the fort. The Metacomet then pursued the Selma into shoal water. The bottom was very soft, however, and the Metacomet, under a heavy pressure of steam, pushed through it and overtook the Selma. A leadsmen had been stationed on the deck of the Metacomet to test the depth of water, and he kept calling out that the water was too shallow for the Metacomet to go farther. Lieutenant Jouett, who was in command of the Metacomet, was annoyed at this and he turned to one of his assistants and said:

“Call that man in; he makes me nervous.”

The Metacomet went on and made the Selma surrender. The Selma was commanded by Captain P. U. Murphy, who in the former days of the United States navy had been a shipmate of Jouett, and as a superior officer had been very kind to him. Before the fight began Jouett said that he intended to capture Murphy if he could. He remembered that Murphy was very fond of eating crabs, and he resolved to give Murphy a treat. So while the fighting was go-

ing on, Jouett had his cook fixing up a nice breakfast for Murphy. After the Selma surrendered, Murphy came on board the Metacomet to surrender his sword. Jouett had seen him coming and had sent away most of the officers and men from the quarter-deck, so that very few should actually see Murphy surrender. He wanted to spare Murphy's feelings as much as possible. As Murphy reached the deck he drew himself up to his full height, and with great dignity held out his sword and began to make a speech saying that he had yielded. Jouett swept the sword aside, took Murphy's hand cordially, put his arm around Murphy's shoulders, and said:

“Why, Murphy, I am glad to see you. Come on; your breakfast has been waiting for you for some time.”

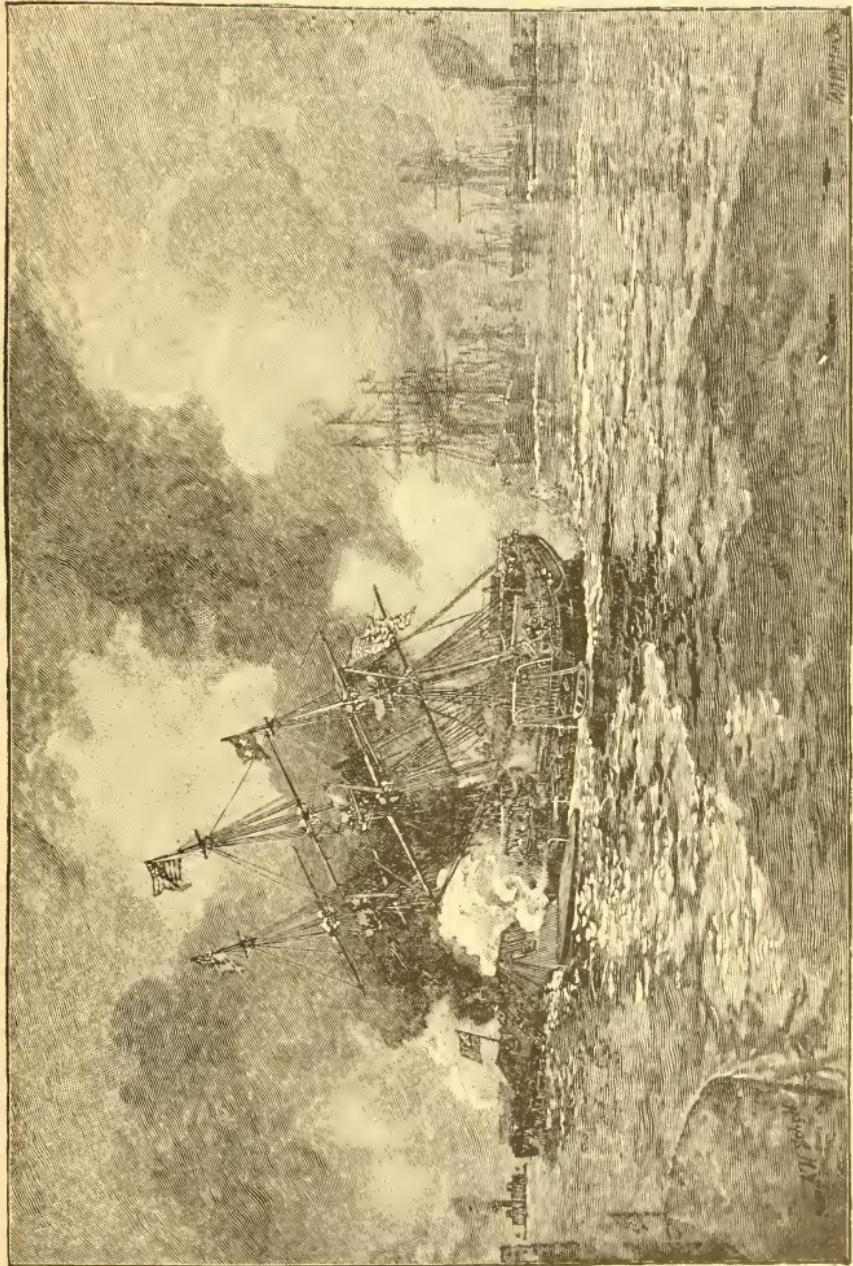
They went into the cabin and as Murphy saw the table already set for him, he turned to Jouett and said:

“Why didn't you let me know that you had all this? I would have surrendered sooner.”

The Hartford was now sweeping up the bay, and the Tennessee tried to ram her. The Hartford was quicker, and avoided the vessel and passed on, having given the ram a broadside. The Tennessee then fought each Northern vessel as it passed. The Monongahela, of the Northern fleet, was in collision with the Tennessee, but little damage resulted. The

Northern vessel which suffered most in passing the Tennessee was the Oneida. Her boiler was pierced by a shot, and the Galena, to which she had been lashed, was unable to escape the Tennessee. The Winnebago, one of the monitors, saw the plight of the Oneida, and Captain Stevens, of the Winnebago, who had given up the command of the Oneida so that his friend Commander Mullaney might take the Oneida, ran down with the Winnebago and came between the Tennessee and the Oneida, saving the latter vessel from destruction. Stevens performed a remarkable part during all the fighting. He would not remain under cover, and kept walking back and forth in the open between the turrets of the Winnebago. When he saved the Oneida, the crew of that vessel gave him three rousing cheers. He stepped to the side of his boat, took off his hat and bowed, as if he was acknowledging a cheer in a parade.

All the vessels had now passed the fort and the Tennessee, and they came to anchor four miles up the bay for a rest and to clean up the ships, as well as to take care of the wounded and the dead. Farragut ordered most of the men to go to breakfast so as to prepare for the final struggle of the morning. Captain Drayton said to him that all the work of the morning counted for nothing so long as the Tennessee was not destroyed. Farragut said he knew that, and that as soon as the men were through with breakfast



At close quarters.

he was going after the Tennessee. Suddenly a cry was heard:

“The ram is coming!”

Farragut watched the Tennessee intently. He thought she might go outside the bay after the small vessels he had left there. To his relief he saw her turn toward the fleet.

“No, Buck is coming here,” he said.

Then he gave orders for the Monongahela, the Lackawanna, and Ossipee to ram the Tennessee with him. The Monongahela struck the Tennessee on the starboard side and then swung off and gave her a broadside of shells. Then the Lackawanna struck her on the port side. The Hartford came swinging down, and it looked as if they would meet bow to bow. They sheered off, however, and a glancing blow resulted. At this time Midshipman John C. Watson lashed Farragut to the rigging once more. The Lackawanna, in trying to hit the Tennessee a second blow, struck the Hartford instead. This annoyed Farragut, and he told his signal officer to order the Lackawanna to keep out of the way.

The Tennessee had been doing great damage with her guns to the wooden ships, but the three monitors, Chickasaw, Winnebago, and Manhattan, now came rushing to the attack. The Manhattan and Winnebago were soon disabled, but the Chickasaw ran around to the stern of the Tennessee and finished her

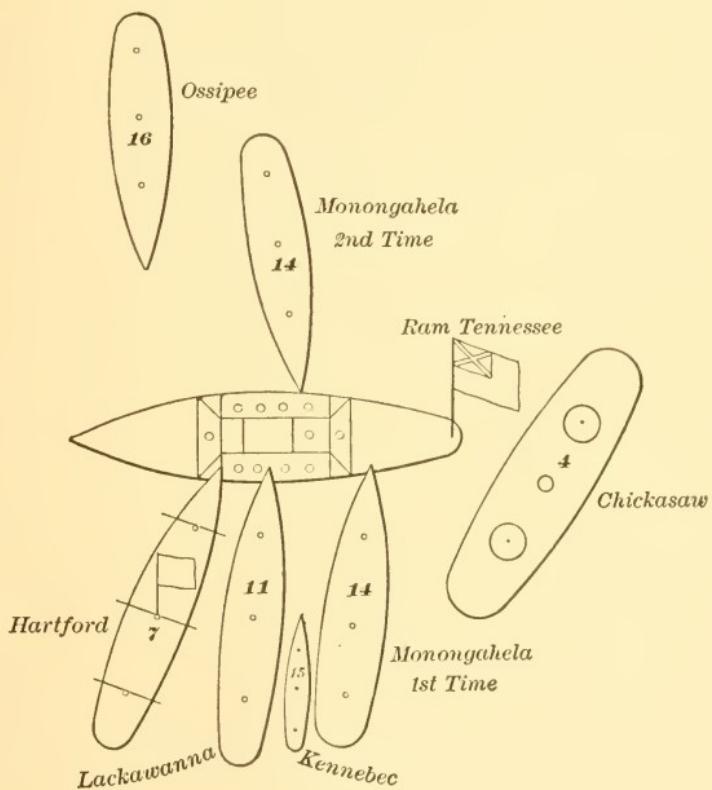


Diagram showing the different Points at which the Tennessee was rammed by Farragut's vessels.

up. The shutter of the rear gun in the Tennessee had become jammed, her smokestack had been shot away, her deck house was full of smoke and gases, the heat was terrific, and a shot from the Chickasaw had carried away the chains to her rudder, so that with the damage that had been done to her by the ramming she was helpless. A splinter had been driven against Admiral Buchanan's leg and had broken in it. Most of the shutters to the portholes were now jammed, the vessel was leaking, and Captain Johnson, who had taken charge of her, could neither shoot his guns nor steer his ship. The Northern vessels were pouncing upon the Tennessee like a pack of hounds on a dying fox at bay. For twenty minutes Johnson had been unable to shoot a gun, and he went to Buchanan, who was under the surgeon's care, and said he thought they ought to surrender.

"Very well," said Buchanan, "if you can not do them any further injury, Johnson, you had better surrender."

Johnson went on deck and waved a white flag just as the Northern vessel Ossipee was coming down to ram the Tennessee. Commander Le Roy, of the Ossipee, saw the white flag too late to avoid a collision, but he turned his ship so that the result was not serious. Le Roy and Johnson had been old friends in the navy before the war, and when he saw Johnson, Le Roy shouted:

"Hello, Johnson, how are you? This is the United States steamer Ossipee. I'll send a boat alongside for you. I'm Le Roy; don't you know me?"

A moment later Johnson was aboard the Ossipee, and the old friends were shaking hands most cordially.

Thus the great fight at Mobile ended. In a few days the forts at the entrance of the harbor surrendered. There was some little fighting going on in and around the city of Mobile up to the next April, but that was a matter with which the army had to do largely. The place practically fell with Farragut's great victory, a victory upon which, with his other work, his fame rests secure for all time.

In this terrific fight of August 5, 1864, the Hartford was struck twenty times; the Brooklyn, thirty; the Octorara, seventeen; the Metacomet, eleven; the Lackawanna, five; the Ossipee, four; the Monongahela, five; the Kennebec, two; and the Galena, seven. The monitor Manhattan was struck nine times; the Winnebago, nineteen; and the Chickasaw, three. The Tennessee was really damaged very little, but fifty-three shot marks were counted on her broken sides.

The loss in the Northern fleet was: Hartford, 25 killed and 28 wounded; Brooklyn, 11 killed and 43 wounded; Laekawanna, 4 killed and 35 wounded; Oneida, 8 killed and 30 wounded; Monongahela, 6

wounded; Metacomet, 1 killed and 2 wounded; Ossipee, 1 killed and 7 wounded; Richmond, 2 wounded; Galena, 1 wounded; Octorara, 1 killed and 10 wounded; Kennebec, 1 killed and 6 wounded. Total, 52 killed and 170 wounded, in addition to the 93 men who were drowned in the Tecumseh. On the Southern side the Tennessee had 2 killed and 9 wounded; Gaines, 2 killed and 3 wounded; Selma, 8 killed and 7 wounded; Morgan, 1 wounded. Total, 12 killed and 20 wounded. The North took 280 men prisoners.

Thus ended a bloody day, but one of the most glorious in naval history in the bravery shown on both sides.



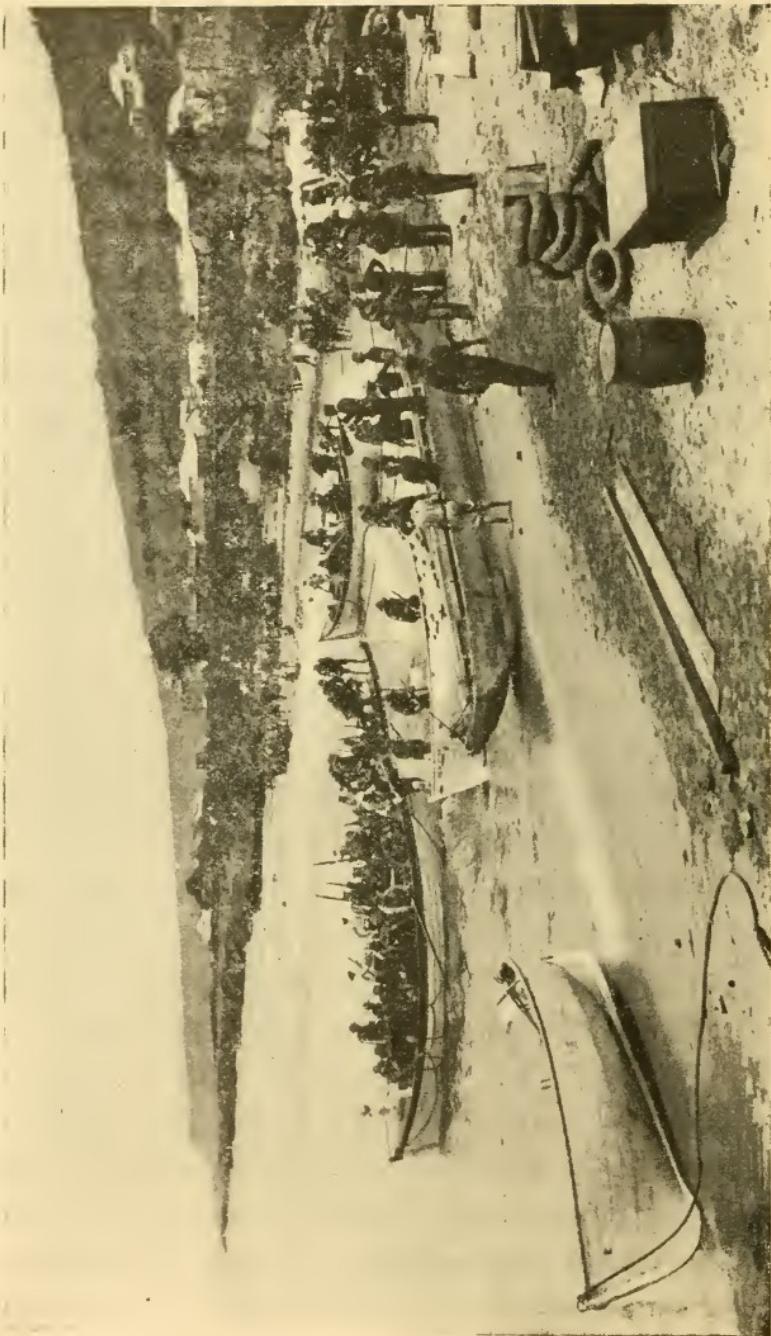
Sinking of the Stone fleet in the port of Charleston, S. C.

CHAPTER VII.

FAILURES OFF CHARLESTON.

FROM the time the war began, in 1861, until it ended, in 1865, the North tried many times to capture Charleston, S. C., from the sea. All these efforts failed, and it was not until General Sherman with his army appeared in the rear of the city, in 1865, that it fell. The North, early in the war, sent a group of vessels to blockade the port of Charleston. On December 20, 1861, the North sunk twenty schooners loaded with stone in the various ship channels to the port to keep vessels from going in or out. These twenty schooners were called the "stone fleet." The barrier had some effect, but the tide and the currents soon opened new channels, and the watch by the Northern vessels off the bar had to be constant and active.

After Admiral Dupont had won his great victory at Port Royal, and after the Monitor had shown how useful that type of vessel was, the North decided to build, as quickly as possible, several more monitors, and to place them under the command of Admiral



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Landing troops from transports. (Photographed from nature.)

Dupont, with the idea of capturing Charleston. It was in the port of Charleston that the civil war actually began, and the South, as a matter of pride as well as of defense, meant to keep the Northern soldiers and sailors out of Charleston until the very last, and it succeeded. During the latter part of 1861 and during all of 1862 it fortified the harbor and made it very strong with earthworks, barriers in the channels, torpedoes, and mines, in addition to the strong stone forts that were there when the war began. The main ship channel ran directly north from the ocean into the harbor and close to Morris Island on the west of that entrance. Having passed Morris Island, a ship entering the port would come in direct range of Fort Sumter on an island in the harbor, and also within range of several forts and earthworks on Sullivan's Island which guarded the northern entrance to the port. All along the shore of Morris Island, to the south, were heavily armed earthworks, and almost every place on Sullivan's Island that could serve the purpose was bristling with cannon behind the great heaps of dirt and sand. A long line of torpedoes reached from Fort Sumter to Sullivan's Island across the main channel, and along the many inlets from the sea, above and below the main entrance to the port, were earthworks behind which were heavy cannon. Altogether no less than seventy large guns protected the port, in addition to the mines and torpedoes.

Nor was this all the protection the South had made for the city and forts. Up one of the rivers near the city the South had built two more of the rams patterned after the Merrimac. They were called the Palmetto State and the Chicora, and were one hundred and fifty feet long, thirty-five feet wide, and drew twelve feet of water. They had two inches of iron over the twenty-two inches of pine and oak that made up their sloping sides, and they could steam about seven knots an hour. The Palmetto State had four large guns and the Chicora had six.

The first action off the harbor took place early on the morning of January 31, 1863, when the two Southern rams stole down the channel in a thick fog, to try to destroy some of the Northern ships on the blockade. Several of the large war ships of the North had been sent to Port Royal for repairs, and only three strong war ships and seven armed merchantmen were doing blockade duty. It was about 4.30 A. M. when the officer of the deck on the Northern armed merchantman Mercedita saw a strange vessel coming straight for his own through the fog. The officer at once shouted:

“What steamer is that? Drop your anchor or you will be into us.”

The reply startled the Northern officer. It was Commodore D. N. Ingraham, in command of the Palmetto State, who replied:

"The Confederate States steamer Palmetto State."

No sooner had the answer to the Northern officer's question been given, than Ingraham fired a seven-inch shell into the Mercedita. It killed one man, tore open the steam drum, exploded, and made a hole four feet square in the opposite side of the boat. The escaping steam killed four men and scalded four others. The Mercedita was helpless, and the captain was compelled to surrender. The Palmetto State, however, did not take possession of the Mercedita, and left the vessel and crew lying where she had been damaged, while the Palmetto State and Chicora went off in the fog for another victim.

One of the Northern vessels lying near the Mercedita was the Keystone State. Her captain had heard the firing on the Mercedita, and he ordered his anchor raised, and had started to see what was the trouble when he met the Palmetto State stealing along in the fog. The two ships exchanged shots, and the Keystone State tried to run away. She met the Chicora and dodged in another direction, only to meet the Palmetto State once more. Again these two ships exchanged shots, and one of the shells from the Palmetto State entered the Keystone State and destroyed the steam pipes. The Keystone State was crippled and twenty men were killed, and her commander had to surrender. The Southern rams cruised

about for a time firing shots here and there in the fog, and finally went back to Charleston, without taking with them the Northern vessels which they had captured. The evening before this disaster to two of the Northern ships another Northern vessel, the gun-boat Isaac Smith, had attempted to go up one of the streams back of the islands that guard the harbor of Charleston. This stream was called the Stono River. A masked battery fired upon the Smith, and a shot disabled the vessel's machinery, killed eight men and wounded seventeen, and the captain surrendered the ship.

By this time some of the new monitors which the North had built had arrived off Charleston. Admiral Dupont was anxious to test the power of them, and he sent one, the Montauk, down to Ossabaw Sound near the Savannah River, to try to destroy a blockade runner called the Nashville, which had been made over into a war ship, and which was lying in the Ogeechee River unable to get out, because the North had sunk ships loaded with stone in the channel. The Nashville was very close to Fort McAllister, and on January 27, 1863, the Montauk, under command of Captain Worden, who had charge of the Monitor in its great fight, went close to Fort McAllister with his new vessel and four small gunboats, and attacked the fort. Little damage was done on either side, although the Montauk was struck thirteen times. On February

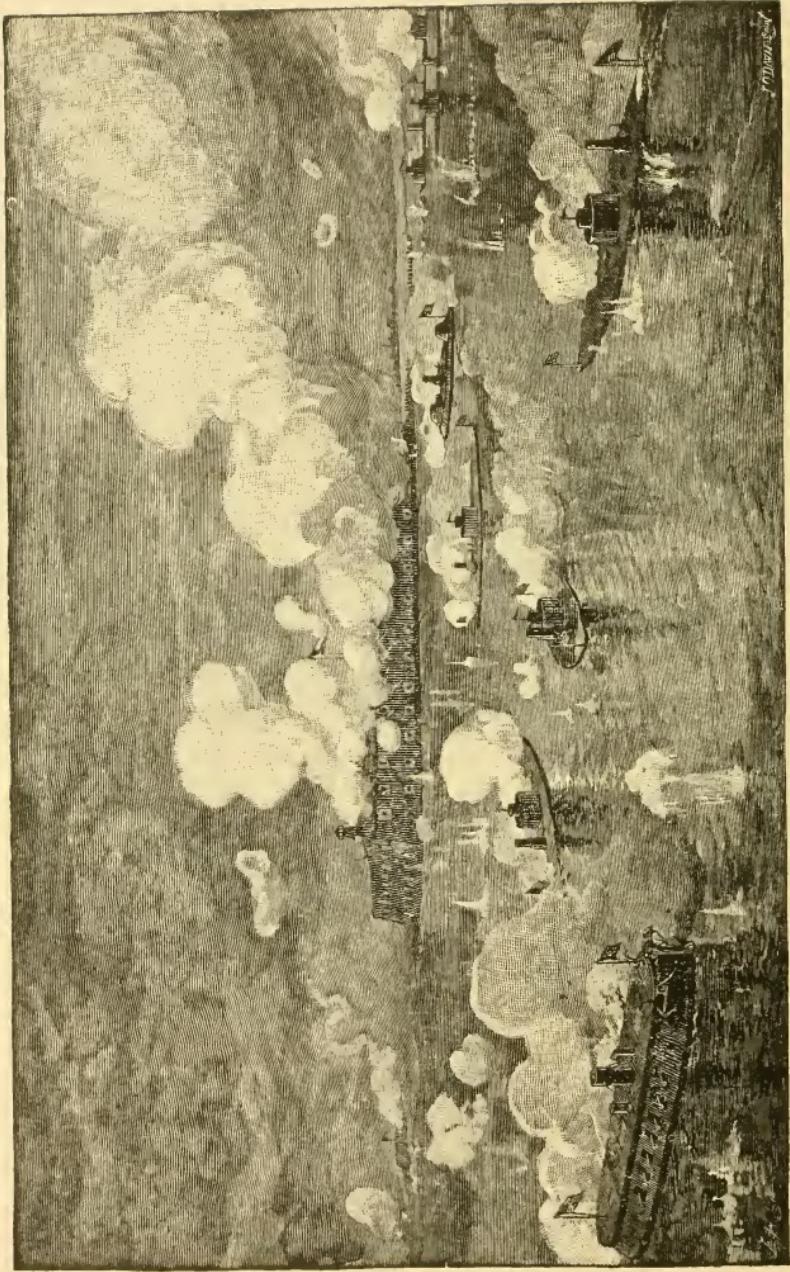
1st, five days later, the attack was renewed, and the Montauk was struck forty-six times, without serious injury. The Northern war ships continued to lie off the fort until February 28th, when Worden decided that he would destroy the Nashville. He ran up close to the fort, where he could see the Nashville lying in the river twelve hundred yards away and across a marsh. Only the upper part of the Nashville could be seen, but Worden soon got the range, and paying no attention whatever to the fort, he began to shoot at the Nashville. In fifty minutes one of the Montauk's shots pierced the Nashville's magazine, and she blew up. Worden retired, his vessel having been struck only five times by shells from Fort McAllister. While going down the river, however, he ran against a torpedo, and a hole was blown in the bottom of the Montauk. Worden ran his vessel on a mud bank, tilted her to one side by moving his guns and weights, patched up the bottom of his boat with an iron plate that he had, and returned to his station as proud of his victory almost as he was of the performance of the Monitor when she fought the Merrimac to a standstill.

By March, 1863, all of the new monitors and two ironclads, one of which was the New Ironsides and the other the Keokuk, had joined Dupont's fleet. The New Ironsides was really the first modern seagoing battle ship the United States ever had. It was built

somewhat after the pattern of the Southern rams of the Merrimac type. It had a long deck house with sloping sides, and was heavily armored and armed. The Keokuk was a sort of monitor and battle ship combined. She had two turrets and, although she carried thirty-three guns, was lightly armored. She was an experiment. Admiral Dupont had received orders to attack the forts and earthworks at Charleston as soon as possible. He did not want to attack them, because he believed he would not be successful, but he obeyed orders promptly. He took with him seven monitors and his two ironclads, and on April 7, 1863, started up the main ship channel, past Morris Island. It was the strongest fleet of its size that had ever been gathered together. The orders were that the vessels should pay no attention to the earthworks on Morris Island or on Sullivan's Island on the northern shore of the harbor, but to attack Fort Sumter. The monitor Weehawken was selected to lead the fleet, because there had been fastened to its bow a sort of bootjack arrangement, called a torpedo catcher. This torpedo catcher was an awkward thing. When the ship rose, it fell; when the ship sank, it rose. The men on board the Weehawken were more afraid of it than they were of an enemy's ship. The fleet started at 1.15 P. M., but it was not until three o'clock that the firing became general. The Weehawken went up to within a few hundred yards of the barrier between

Fort Sumter and Sullivan's Island, bombarding Sumter all the time. Captain John Rodgers, who was in command of the Weehawken, came so close to the barrier that he was afraid he would strike it, and he turned to go down the harbor. The barrier really amounted to very little, and if the Northern ships had forced it, as many of the Northern commanders forced barriers at other places, it is very probable that Fort Sumter and the other forts could have been destroyed from the rear; but Rodgers lacked the dash that some of the Northern commanders had, and the barrier remained untouched. There was great confusion among the Northern ships because of the tide and the currents and the smoke from the forts and vessels. To avoid a collision with the monitor Nahant, the Keokuk ran close to Fort Sumter, where she remained for half an hour. She was struck ninety times in thirty minutes, and her hull and turrets were riddled. Her commander saw that she would probably sink, and he steamed out of action.

Admiral Dupont was on the New Ironsides during the fight. The New Ironsides drew so much water that it was impossible for her to go up into the harbor, and she lay in the main ship channel off Morris Island, and directly opposite Fort Wagner, a strong earthwork. It was learned afterward that during the entire time of the fight the New Ironsides was anchored directly over a mine containing more than two thousand



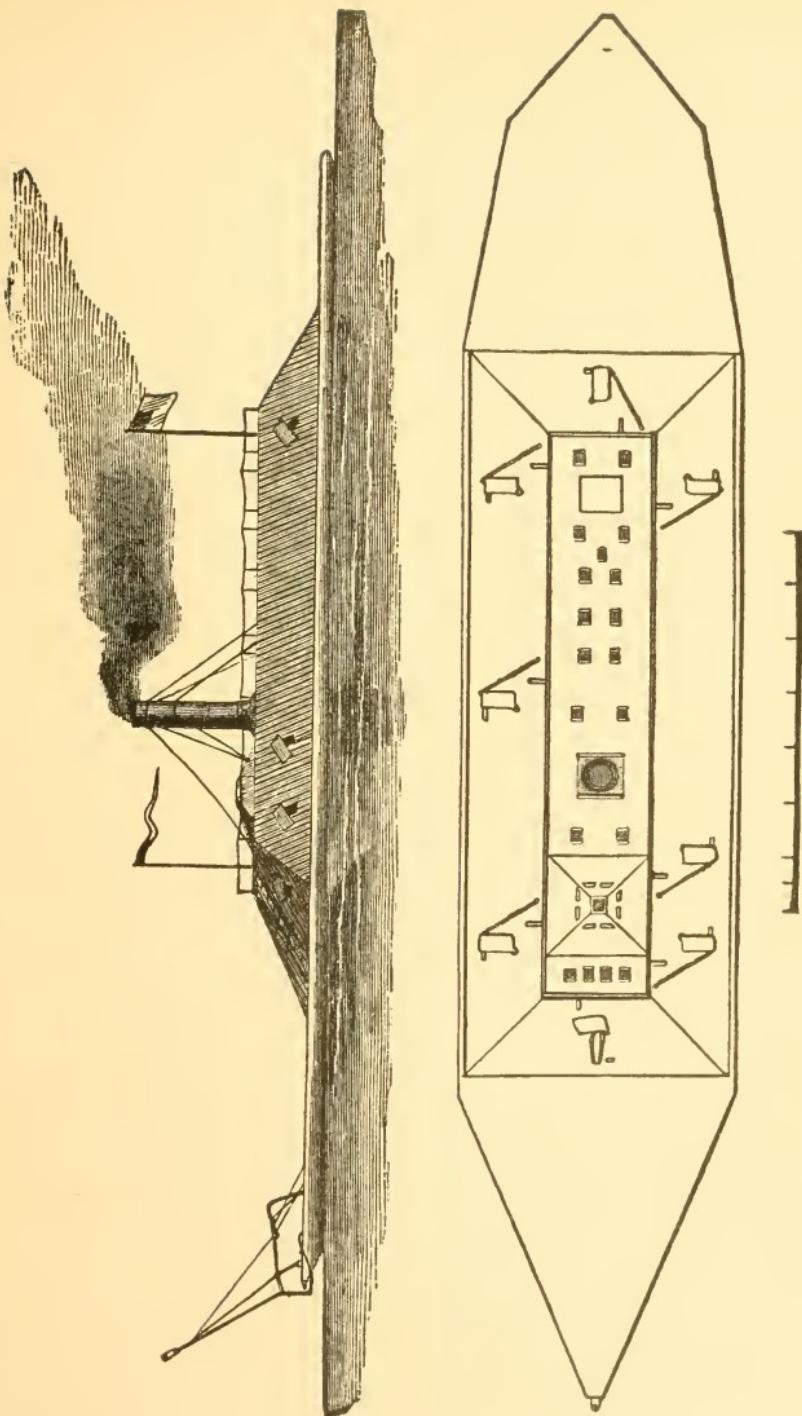
Ironclads attacking Fort Sumter.

pounds of powder. The men in Fort Wagner tried many times to set off the mine, but failed. The reason they failed was because a wagon which had been driven along the beach had broken the wires leading to the mine, and thus the New Ironsides escaped a terrible fate. After the fight had been going on for an hour, Admiral Dupont signaled a recall, intending to renew the contest the next day. The captain of the Keokuk, as he went by the New Ironsides, signaled that his vessel was scarcely able to keep afloat. She did sink that night at the place where she came to anchor, off Morris Island. The Weehawken had had one of her guns disabled, as had also the Passaic and Patapsco. The Nahant's turret was jammed and the shutter for one of the guns on the Nantucket was clogged, and altogether the Northern fleet was in a bad condition. The vessels had fired about one hundred and forty shells, but the Southern forts which had answered the ships fired twenty-two hundred and twenty. The Northern vessels were hit severely during the fight, some of them having as many as sixty dents in their sides and turrets. Three men were killed and eleven wounded on the ships. It was impossible to fight again the next day. Dupont had been beaten. In his report on the fight he said:

“We have met with a sad repulse. I shall not turn it into a great disaster.”

Dupont had learned that the South was building another ram at Savannah. It was like the Merrimac, and he decided to destroy it if possible. This made another of the side attacks by the fleet at Charleston, like that in which the Nashville was destroyed, and it also resulted successfully. It was one of the most showy victories of the navy. The Atlanta had been made into a ram from a former Scotch steamer called the Fingal. The usual house with sloping sides was built on the hull, and armor, such as was put on the other rams, was bolted to eighteen inches of wood backing. The armor was not of good quality, and the deck house was not built so strongly as those of some of the other rams. She had four fine guns, and was commanded by Lieutenant William A. Webb. Admiral Dupont had sent two of his monitors, the Weehawken and Nahant, down to the mouth of the Wilmington River, below the Savannah River, through which the Atlanta would try to go to sea.

On June 17, 1863, the Atlanta put out to meet the Northern ships. Two excursion steamers, loaded down with citizens of Savannah, went along to see the fight. The Weehawken and Nahant started out for deep water, and waited for the Atlanta. When a mile and a half away the Atlanta opened fire on the Weehawken. The Weehawken did not reply until she was within three hundred yards of the Atlanta. The first shot from the Weehawken went through the At-



The Southern Ram Atlanta.

lanta's deck house, and the splinters of iron and wood wounded sixteen men. The second shot from the Weehawken struck the pilot house and wrecked it, wounding the two pilots and the two helmsmen inside. The third shot hit one of the shutters to a port-hole and partly tore open the side of the deck house. The Atlanta fired eight shots during the fight, and the Weehawken five. After the fifth shot had been fired by the Weehawken, Lieutenant Webb saw that the Atlanta was beaten, and hauled down his flag, while the excursionists, who had come out to see a great victory, went home as fast as they could, and very much downhearted after a fight which had lasted only fifteen minutes.

Dupont's failure at Charleston caused the Navy Department to make a change of commanders there. Dupont was a splendid man, highly educated, very earnest and loyal, a well-trained sailor and fighter, charming in his manner, and kind to his men, but he was unable to repeat at Charleston the success he had had at Port Royal. With regret, the Navy Department decided to remove him, and sent Admiral J. A. B. Dahlgren, the inventor of a famous gun, and also a fine sailor and fighter, to take Dupont's place.

Dahlgren arrived on July 4, 1863, and on July 10th he made an attack on Fort Wagner on Morris Island, assisting the forces of the Northern army which had been landed there. Dahlgren destroyed

some earthworks below the fort, and then drew up opposite the fort, and for nine hours shelled it with his monitors. The land forces attacked the fort also, but had to withdraw. On July 11th the troops again



United States Monitor towing a disabled gunboat in a storm off Cummings Point battery.

attacked Fort Wagner, with the help of the ships, but the Southern forces repelled them. The monitors were hit only a few times during the two day's engagement, and the fort didn't seem to be damaged much. On July 18th the ships and the troops made another land and water attack on Fort Wagner, and again the troops were repulsed.

It was not until August 17th that the fort was silenced at last. Four monitors and the New Iron-sides ran up to within four hundred and fifty yards of Fort Wagner, and seven gunboats, lying at a longer distance, helped them shell the fort, while the troops stormed it. After two hours' fighting, Fort Wagner

was silenced but not taken. A shot struck the pilot house of the monitor Catskill during the fight, killing Commander G. W. Rodgers, one of the best men in the navy, and Paymaster Woodbury, and wounding two other men. During this fight Admiral Dahlgren ran within a mile of Fort Sumter.

On the night of August 23d the monitors ran up close to Fort Sumter and fired upon it for five hours. The monitors were hit seventy-one times, and the leg of Captain Badger, of the Weehawken, was broken by a flying splinter. On the night of September 6th the Southern forces left Fort Wagner and Morris Island, and on the next night the Weehawken, in running into the harbor, went aground and remained there for several hours. When daylight came the Southern men saw her fast in the mud, and began to fire on her from the forts and earthworks, and the New Ironsides and the other monitors ran in and shot at the forts on Sullivan's and James Islands until the Weehawken was floated off the mud by the rising tide.

The night attack on Fort Sumter by the ships had been more successful than the Northern men knew. General Beauregard, who was in charge of the Southern forces, said later that if the Northern ships had kept up this kind of work they would have destroyed the fort, but Admiral Dahlgren did not know this, and not having had much success up to this time, he

decided to try to capture Fort Sumter in another way. He made up a boating expedition under charge of Commander T. H. Stevens, and sent four hundred men, on the night of September 8th, to try to storm the place. A tug towed the boats to within eight hundred yards of the fort. One division was to land on the northwest side of the fort, and the others on the southeast side. By a mistake they all rowed to the northwest side. The Southern forces saw them coming, and met them with a sharp fire. Only a few of the boats landed their crews, and these men were captured. The Northern side lost three men killed, and thirteen officers and one hundred and two men were taken prisoners.

That ended the active hard fighting off Charleston, but there were several exciting incidents yet to occur in that harbor. The first of these was the sinking of the monitor Weehawken, which occurred on December 6, 1863. The monitors had been built so that the sterns were lower than the bows. The water which leaked into them always ran to the stern, where it was pumped out. On December 6th a heavy load of powder and shot was placed in the bow of the Weehawken, lowering it several inches. No one seemed to notice that the water which came in was not running toward the stern. Several swells sent a lot of water into the openings containing the chains to the anchors, and suddenly it was seen that the Wee-

hawken was about to founder. She put up the signal "assistance required," but sank within five minutes, carrying down four officers and twenty seamen.

It was about this time that the South decided to make use of submarine boats to destroy the Northern ships. They built a craft called the David, which was fifty-four feet long, and six feet in diameter, and shaped like a cigar. She was commanded by Lieutenant Glassell, of the Southern navy, with a volunteer crew. She had a torpedo on the end of a spar. On the night of October 5, 1863, this little boat went down the harbor partly submerged. Her top, which looked like a plank, was all that could be seen. When she came near the New Ironsides the watch saw this strange object floating near the vessel, and sounded an alarm. By the time the crew were at their posts a big explosion occurred close beside the Ironsides, throwing up a great quantity of water, and lifting the ship to some extent. Neither boat was damaged much, and two of the crew of the David clung to her and took her back to Charleston in the confusion that occurred.

This attack was so successful that the South built several boats of the David kind, and one of them, which had a famous career, the details of which will be told later, went down the harbor to the Housatonic on February 17, 1864, and exploded a torpedo beneath that ship. Both vessels were lost. Five of

the Housatonic's crew were drowned; the rest took refuge in the rigging, and were rescued by small boats.

That was the last of the thrilling naval fighting in and around Charleston harbor. The city did not surrender to the naval forces of the North. From first to last it resisted all attempts to take it from the sea.

CHAPTER VIII.

CAPTURE OF FORT FISHER.

THE last great fighting work of the navy in the civil war was the capture of Fort Fisher at the mouth of the Cape Fear River, North Carolina. The city of Wilmington is situated a few miles up the Cape Fear River, and it was the most important base of supplies the Southern forces had. There were two entrances to the mouth of the river, and it was through these that more of the vessels called blockade runners, which brought supplies from English and other ports, passed up to Wilmington. The South erected on the strip of sand on the northern entrance to Cape Fear River probably the strongest fort or earthworks that had ever been known up to that time. It was Fort Fisher. Late in 1864 the chief army of the South was almost hemmed in at Richmond by General Grant. Supplies could reach Richmond by railroad from Wilmington, and it had long been seen that one way to hasten the fall of the South was to capture Wilmington and stop the arrival of more supplies of food and powder and shot. Although the

coast had been blockaded off the mouth of the Cape Fear River, no attack had been made upon Fort Fisher and the other defenses which the South had built along that river to protect Wilmington.

Late in 1864 the North decided that Fort Fisher must be taken. All the other places of importance along the coast and up the Mississippi had been captured, with the exception of Charleston, and it was possible, therefore, to use nearly all the large and small ships of war that at that time were in the navy in attacking Fort Fisher. The Navy Department wanted Farragut to take charge of the ships in this work, but Farragut's health was bad at this time, and Admiral Porter, who had done such good work on the Mississippi, was chosen in his place. The work of taking the fort was to be a navy and army movement, and, as has been seen, Porter was always at his best when helping the army with his ships. It was on December 18, 1864, that the fleet, the strongest that the North had yet formed, sailed from Hampton Roads. With the fleet were a large number of army transports carrying nearly four thousand troops, under the command of General B. F. Butler. Altogether there were nearly one hundred and fifty vessels in the expedition.

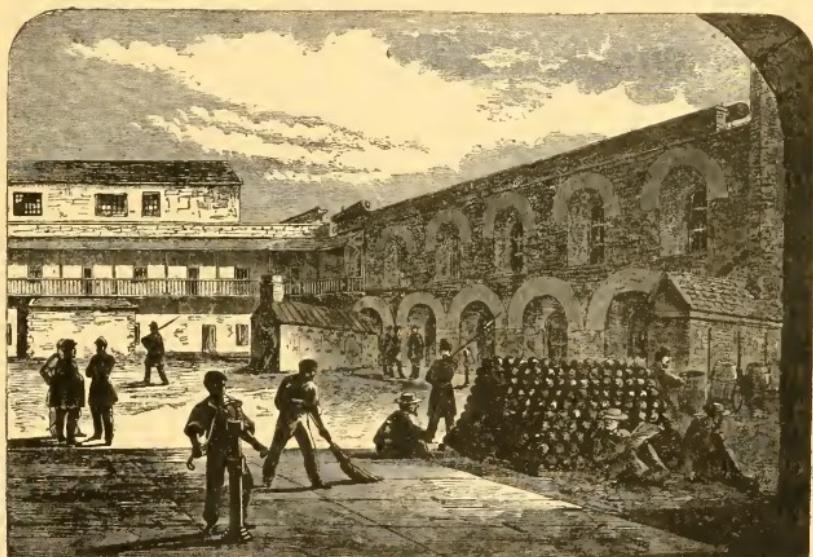
It was not until December 23d that all the vessels arrived at the place of meeting, about twenty-five miles east of Fort Fisher. Admiral Porter wanted to

bombard the fort at once. His plan was for the troops to storm the fort after he had driven the Southern men from their guns. General Butler, however, had another plan. He thought that he could wreck the fort and frighten the Southern soldiers away by exploding a great amount of powder in a ship directly in front of the earthworks.

Admiral Porter and General Butler were not good friends, but the admiral yielded to the general's plan, and the experiment was tried. It was almost a laughable affair, but it showed at the same time the bravery of some of the Northern sailors. Porter took the old steamer Louisiana, and placed more than two hundred tons of powder in her. He laid wires through the vessel, and then called for volunteers to perform the work of blowing her up. Eleven men were selected for the task. The plan was to tow the Louisiana to within three hundred or four hundred yards of the fort, which lay close to the ocean, and near which there was deep water. So sure was General Butler that the blowing up of this vessel would have a terrible and dangerous result, that he sent some of his transports fifty miles away. Porter's ships were ordered to lie twenty miles out to sea. The Louisiana was to be blown up about midnight. Butler expected that the gases from the explosion would roll in over the fort and kill the men who were left after the fort itself had been blown to pieces. As soon

as the explosion occurred, the war ships were to hurry to the fort, and if by that time anybody was alive, they were to bombard the place until Butler's transports would arrive two or three hours later, when the fort was to be stormed by the troops which were to be landed.

It was on the night of December 23, 1864, that Commander A. C. Rhind and ten men set out with



Interior of Fort Fisher.

the Louisiana to anchor her and blow her up. It was looked upon as one of the most dangerous feats that had been tried in the war, and on this account the men who took charge of the work were as brave as if the plan had been worth trying. All the lights on the tug and on the Louisiana were put out, and at

11.30 P. M. the two vessels slowly approached the fort. Not a Northern vessel was in sight anywhere, and the men in the fort thought the Louisiana was a blockade runner. The men on the Louisiana lit the fuses and started some clockwork machinery, which, after about an hour, was to let some weights fall and explode the powder in the various parts of the ship all at once.

Everything worked well, and all the men got off the Louisiana safely by midnight and steamed away on the tug as fast as they could go, so as to get out of reach of the damage that would be done. The men on the fleet twenty miles out to sea waited for the shock, and some of them probably held fast to the sides of their ships so as not to be blown away. Butler and his men were so far off that he felt that nothing serious could happen to them. It was at 1.40 A. M. that the men on the ships saw a faint flash on the horizon, something like a gleam of lightning, and then a dull sound rolled across the water and that was all. A cloud of powder smoke, which was an hour in passing, drifted over the fleet after a time, and then all the vessels started at full speed to learn what had been the result of Butler's scheme. Not a man in the fort had been injured and no damage had been done. The men in the fort thought a boiler on the ship had exploded. Porter saw at once that the old-fashioned ways of capturing a fort would have to be tried, and

when Butler came up and saw the failure he did not feel very pleasant. In writing about it afterward, General Butler said:

"The effect that I expected was that the gases from the burning powder would so disturb the air as to render it impossible for men to breathe within two hundred yards; that the magazines of the fort would be burst in, and possibly the magazines themselves be exploded; that by the enormous missiles that would be set in motion, and by the concussion many men would be killed."

The explosion was such a fizzle that the brave men who did the work never received any reward for it. At 11.30 A. M. the next morning Porter moved his vessels close in to the fort and began to bombard it. To understand what a task this was a description of the fort is necessary. It was really a series of about twenty forts of sand. Such a fort is the hardest to destroy. It was in the shape of a capital letter L. The long side of the fort began with a mound of sand eighty feet high, in which there were two very strong guns. This part of the fort stretched for fourteen hundred yards along the ocean front. In the heaps of sand which composed this side of the fort there were seventeen very large guns. At the northern end of the ocean side of the fort the earthworks made a turn at right angles, and stretched across the strip of sand for five hundred yards to the Cape Fear River. This

stretch was also made up of great mounds of sand, which were really separate forts, and behind these mounds were twenty-one great guns, mounted at regular intervals.

It was seen that if the fort was to be captured by a land force, the soldiers must be landed above the fort, and march down and try to storm it on this short side. A great ditch was dug by the Southern men in front of the mounds on this side of the fort, and a row of logs with sharpened ends was planted in front of the ditch from the ocean across to the river. Out in front of the logs a large number of torpedoes had been hidden in the sand. Wires ran to these torpedoes from the fort, and the idea was to blow up the torpedoes when the troops were passing over them.

The sand mounds of the fort were open at the rear only, and were of various shapes. Most of them had walls forty feet high, and between them were what were called "traverses," or sand heaps about twenty feet higher. The guns in the fort were of the best make, and altogether no such strong fort had been made during the war.

It was 11.30 A. M. on December 24, 1864, that Admiral Porter gave the signal for his ironclads and other large vessels to go close to the fort and to begin the bombardment. Porter raised the signal to fire slowly, and until dark the firing was kept up, when

Porter gave the signal to his ships to withdraw. It was really nothing more than target practice on both sides. In fact, Admiral Porter called it that. Little damage was done to the fort, and the chief injury to the ships was caused by the bursting of the Parrott rifled guns on five vessels. Altogether sixteen men were killed and twenty-three were wounded in this way. The Southern forces had been increased in a hurry, after the explosion on the Louisiana, and it was a harder task, therefore, to try to destroy the fort. On the next day three thousand of General Butler's troops were landed on the beach, five miles above the fort. They advanced gradually, and the skirmishers actually went right up to the fort itself. One officer even climbed a parapet, seized a flag, and carried it away. Another man rushed inside one of the mounds, knocked a Southern soldier off a horse, and brought the horse out.

Meanwhile General Butler, with General Weitzel, who was in direct command of the troops on shore, came down in a boat along the beach. Butler told Weitzel that he didn't think they could take the fort, but he wanted Weitzel to look into the matter carefully and tell him what he thought about it. Weitzel took the hint, and he soon reported to Butler that he was quite sure they could not capture the fort, and Admiral Porter that night, having been bombarding the fort all day, was surprised to get a letter from

Butler in which, after saying that he did not think the fort could be captured, Butler said:

"I shall, therefore, sail for Hampton Roads as soon as the transport fleet can be got in order."

Butler did sail away, and Porter, who had been doing all he could to reduce the fort when Butler's troops were on shore, was angry over the result. Twenty men had been killed and sixty-three wounded on the ships in the two days' bombardment. In the fort there were six killed and fifty-two wounded. Eight of the guns of the fort had been made useless, two small magazines had been blown up, and several little buildings burned. The attack on the fort had been a failure.

Porter did not intend to give up. He wrote to Washington, and the War Department, through the President, ordered General Grant to send General A. H. Terry with six thousand soldiers to assist Porter. These soldiers landed on the beach above the fort on January 13, 1865. Porter moved his splendid fleet close to the fort on the same day, and began another bombardment. In his firing lines he had forty-two ships, of which six were ironclads, five being monitors and the other being the New Ironsides. He moved his ironclads close to the sharp corner in the fort, and stretched a line of thirteen vessels up the beach above them, where they could fire upon the short side of the earthworks. Two other lines of vessels were stretched

along the long side of the fort on the ocean front. This made three lines of ships and one group, the guns of which commanded every part of the fort. About half a mile out to sea from his lines along the long side of the fort and in four divisions were stretched his reserve vessels, most of them being small. These vessels were used from time to time in helping the troops and in carrying messages.

Porter began the bombardment at 3.30 p. m. on January 13th. It lasted until nearly six o'clock. It is said to have been a grand sight. It continued until after darkness set in, and the bursting of the shells above the mounds of the fort were like flashes of lightning darting from heaven to earth. The roar of the guns was terrible, and the smoke seemed to unite with the clouds and to bring the sky down to the very ground. Porter ordered his vessels to withdraw, but left his ironclads in position through the night and at intervals threw shells into the fort. On that night General Terry visited Porter on his flagship, and they made their plans to storm the fort. It was decided to land sixteen hundred sailors and four hundred marines from the ships, and these were to storm the ocean side of the fort while the troops marched down on the land side. On the next day, January 14th, the ships continued the bombardment of the fort, as on the day before, and that night the sailors and marines were landed. The troops had marched down to within two

miles of the fort, and had thrown up barriers of sand to protect themselves.

It was arranged that the assault should take place at three o'clock on the afternoon of January 15th. The sailors were in three divisions and the marines in one. The sailors were armed with cutlasses and revolvers only. The plan was for the sailors to rush up the beach, shooting their revolvers and swinging their cutlasses, while the marines with their muskets were to shoot down the men who might climb to the top of the mounds to keep the sailors back. By some mistake there was little order among the sailors. They had landed in small parties and had never drilled together on land, and for a time there was confusion as to who should command them. They were very close to the fort, while the army forces were a long distance away. The sailors had thrown up some sand about them to protect themselves until the signal should be given to start the assault. The signal agreed upon was the blowing of the whistle of every vessel in the fleet.

Exactly at three o'clock every ship's whistle began to blow. They made a great shrieking noise. With a cheer the sailors and marines dashed up the beach. At once hundreds of Southern soldiers leaped to the top of the mound, and began to fire into the running sailors and marines. It was a bloody struggle. The men from the ships had nearly half a mile to go. The

sailors could do nothing with their revolvers and cutlasses until they reached the works, and the marines did not protect them well with their muskets. On they kept, however, although they were swept down, dozens at a time. They reached the wooden palisades and some of them passed through openings which the guns of the ships had made and went almost to the mounds. They were beaten back, however, and eighty-two were killed and two hundred and sixty-nine wounded. They rallied three times before they finally fled.

Nearly every man that could be spared inside the fort had been sent to beat off the attack by the sailors and marines. Meantime the men of the army had been marching quietly along the edge of the Cape Fear River, and partly protected by its banks. They reached the last mound on the short side of the fort almost without opposition. Then began a terrific struggle. The soldiers climbed up the first barrier of sand, and hand to hand the men from the North and South fought one another. The captains of the various ships in the fleet saw the close fighting and they sent their shells straight at the Southern men who were in conflict with the storming soldiers of the North. Foot by foot, aided by the firing of the fleet, the soldiers advanced. As they would appear on the top of a parapet or mound the sailors on the ships would give cheer after cheer, and the struggle would be continued to another mound. By night-

fall all of the separate forts on the short side of the earthworks had been carried, and the march of the Northern men began slowly along the ocean front of the fort which the sailors had failed to carry. It was not until nearly ten o'clock at night that the last mound of the fort, the one which was eighty feet high, and which stood at the top of the L, was carried. When the Southern fire had stopped entirely hundreds upon hundreds of rockets were sent up from the ships, and cheer upon cheer rang across the water to the shore. More than seven hundred of the soldiers were killed or wounded. It was a glorious attack and a brave defense. Less than two thousand men inside the fort had held the Northern forces at bay until that time. Nearly all the Southern troops in the fort were taken prisoners. To show how well they had defended the place, it may be said that during the first attack on Fort Fisher, when General Butler failed to assault it, the vessels of Porter's fleet threw fifteen thousand shells into it. During the second attack the ships threw about twenty-two thousand shells into the fort.

There were several small forts up the Cape Fear River to Wilmington, but Admiral Porter's ships soon destroyed them, and in February, 1865, less than two months before the South gave in at last, the city of Wilmington was occupied by the Northern forces. No more gallant work was done during the entire war than the storming of Fort Fisher.

CHAPTER IX.

BRAVERY IN THE NAVY IN THE CIVIL WAR—CUSHING'S DEEDS.

IN a war like that between the North and South, where hundreds of thousands of brave men were fighting on both sides, scarcely a day passed without some man showing unusual courage. No one could even begin to tell of all the brave deeds that were done on both sides during the war. Men of the South and men of the North alike were as bold and brave as was to be expected from a people whose forefathers won their liberty in the great Revolution, beginning in 1776. Both sides were made up of Americans. It called for as much bravery, perhaps, to lie in the swamps day after day as to storm a fort; to shovel coal into boilers in the war ships as to land on a beach and try to take a fort; to go without food and endure the hardships of heat and cold as to face a rain of bullets in the excitement of battle.

There were many instances, however, of bravery on land and sea which drew to the men who did the deeds great attention, and made the men heroes in

the eyes of the world. Their deeds live in history because they were unusual and because the world loves to hear and to read of daring for the sake of one's country. The name that stands out foremost for brave acts in the navy during the civil war is that of William Barker Cushing. It is safe to say that no country at any time ever produced a braver man. He lived only thirty-one years, but his short life was crowded with thrilling events. His bravery brought him the rewards of great fame and honor, but he never seemed to care as much for them as he did simply to do his duty. What has been called "the glory of dying in battle" evidently appealed to him to such an extent that he knew no fear and was eager, time and time again, to face what seemed to be certain death for the sake of his country. He placed his duty toward his country above everything else, and left an example of courage that makes one of the brightest pages in American history. Had he lived to finish his career in the navy, he would have been the highest ranking officer by the time he reached middle age. He was a mere boy when he first showed what was in him, and his glorious deeds belong to the whole American people. Five times in his career he received the personal thanks of the Secretary of the Navy. He lived through the civil war, but died a few years afterward of brain fever, and as a mark of respect to his memory the

first modern torpedo boat that the United States built was named after him.

Cushing was born in Wisconsin of a noted family on November 24, 1842. He entered the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1857, but resigned on March 23, 1861, just before the war began. He entered the navy again in May, 1861, and on the very day he began his service he captured the first prize of the war, a schooner loaded with tobacco. He was made a lieutenant on July 16, 1862. It was in November of that year that he performed his first great act of daring. He was in command of the small steamer Ellis at the mouth of New River, N. C., which flows into the Atlantic about forty miles below Cape Lookout. Into the New River, about twenty miles from the ocean, flows the River Onslow, and a few miles up that river is a small town called Onslow Court House. There was a large amount of arms and military stores at Onslow Court House, and Cushing decided to try to capture them. He started up the New River on November 23, 1862, and when he had gone five miles met an outward-bound steamer loaded with cotton and turpentine. The men on the steamer burned the vessel and cargo to prevent Cushing from capturing the ship. Cushing finally reached Onslow Court House at one o'clock that afternoon. He captured twenty-five rifles, two small schooners, and the mail from Wilmington,

N. C. He also destroyed a large salt works at the place.

Taking the prize schooners with him, Cushing, early the next morning, started to return to the mouth of the New River. He had gone only a short distance when some Southern troops began to fire upon him from the bank with two cannon. After an hour of sharp fighting, Cushing, with his guns on the Ellis, drove the enemy off and then started on again. The pilot in charge of the Ellis soon ran the vessel on a sand bar. The headway of the vessel carried it over the bar, and Cushing found that his steamer was in a sort of lake with sand bars all about him. He was in a dangerous place. He sent some men ashore to see if they could capture the cannon which they had silenced a short time before, but it was found that the cannon had been taken away. His next move was to bring one of his captured schooners alongside the Ellis, and to load into it everything that could be moved from the Ellis, except a pivot gun, some powder and shell, two tons of coal, and some small arms. Still it was found that the Ellis could not be moved into deep water. Cushing, therefore, placed most of his men on one of the schooners and ordered them to go down to the mouth of the river, while he and six volunteers remained on the Ellis to see if they could not find some way out of the trouble, and if they could not, to fight to the last.

These seven men stayed all night on the boat, and the next morning the enemy began to fire upon them with four cannon from different places on the river's bank. It was a losing fight. Cushing's boat was shot to pieces, and there was nothing left for him and his men to do but to get into a small boat and row down the river, under the fire of the enemy. After shooting the large gun on the Ellis for the last time, he set fire to the vessel, leaving her flag flying at the mast, and he and his men took the long pull of a mile and a half, escaping with their lives. He rounded a point in the river just before some Southern cavalry dashed out upon it in the hope of cutting him off. The Ellis shortly blew up, and when Cushing got back to the steamer Hetzel he made a report which he closed by asking that a court be appointed to inquire into the loss of his ship, and, in his own words, "to see if the honor of the flag has suffered in my hands." Cushing was then only twenty years old.

Cushing next won attention by his acts of bravery on and near the Cape Fear River, N. C., where he had been doing blockade duty. It was on the night of February 28, 1864, that he started on a trip up the river, which seemed almost foolhardy. A short distance from the coast is a little town called Smithville. There was a garrison of about one thousand soldiers there, under command of General Hébert. Cushing's plan was to capture General Hébert and

kidnap him, and also take any small vessels that he might find at the place. He took with him Acting-Ensign J. E. Jones, Acting-Master's Mate William L. Howarth, and twenty men in two small boats. He passed by Fort Caswell without being seen, and reached the town of Smithville, where he landed in front of the hotel of the place and directly opposite the garrison. He left most of his men in the boats, and with two officers and a seaman walked boldly into General Hébert's office. The general was not there, having gone to Wilmington on business, but Cushing captured an engineer officer in the place, and with his prisoner went back to his boats. The sentries were so astonished at this deed that they did not give the alarm until after he had passed Fort Caswell on his way down the river and was safe.

On June 23 Cushing did another act of daring up the Cape Fear River. It was supposed that the Southern ram Raleigh, which on the night of May 6, 1864, had attacked two of the Northern vessels on blockade duty, and then had gone up the river, was about to come down again, and Cushing, with Jones and Howarth and fifteen other men, started up the stream to destroy her. They went up past Fort Caswell and Smithville safely, but a short distance beyond Smithville, the moon having come out from behind a cloud, they were discovered by the sentries. Cushing turned to go down the stream, but as soon as he

got in the shadow of the river's bank he put about and went up the river once more. When within seven miles of Wilmington the party landed and remained for that night and the next day in hiding in a swamp. On the second night Cushing and his men captured a fishing party. He made his prisoners act as guides, and he examined the defenses of Wilmington in the river three miles below the city.

The next morning the party went up a small creek until Cushing found a road. This road led to the main road between Wilmington and Fort Fisher. Cushing left most of his men in his boat and lay in hiding along the main road to see what was going on there. Soon the mail carrier from Fort Fisher to Wilmington came along on horseback, and Cushing captured him. In a short time the mail carrier from Wilmington to Fort Fisher came along, and Cushing tried to capture him, pursuing him on the horse of the first carrier. The second carrier escaped. Cushing's men by this time were very hungry, having had nothing to eat for nearly one day. Howarth put on the clothes of the captured carrier and went to a store. He soon returned with food.

The third night had come and Cushing, having cut all the telegraph wires in the neighborhood, and having found that the Raleigh had been destroyed by the Southern men themselves, turned to go down

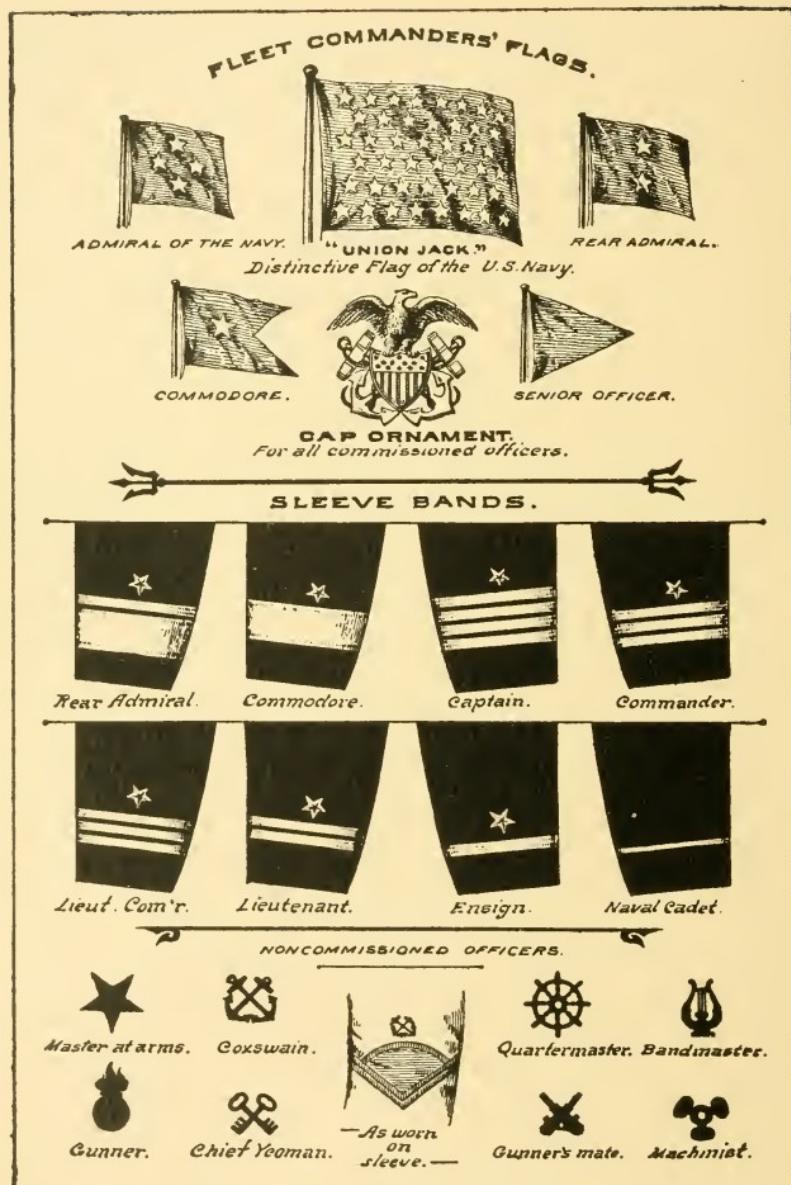
the river to his ship. The moon had risen just as he reached the mouth of the Cape Fear River, and Cushing and his party were discovered by the Southern guard boat on duty there. He started to attack the guard boat, when three other boats came out of the shadow on one side of the river and five more from the shadow on the other side. For the moment it seemed as if Cushing's time had come at last. He made a quick turn with his boat, however, and ran into the shadow of the western bank of the river, and then, the Southern boats having lost sight of him, he slipped out to sea and escaped with all his men.

Cushing's most daring exploit occurred late in October of that same year, 1864. The South had built a ram called the Albemarle, patterned after the Merrimac, Atlanta, and other vessels of that class, to try to destroy the Northern vessels in the sounds along the North Carolina coast. The Albemarle was built up the Roanoke River, and on April 17, 1864, attacked two Northern vessels, the Miami and Southfield, at Plymouth, N. C., on the Roanoke. The Southfield was sunk, and the Miami retreated to Albemarle Sound. On May 5th the Albemarle came down the Roanoke River and had a fight with three small Northern vessels, called double-enders, because they were pointed at the bow and stern. They were the Sassacus, Wyalusing, and Mattabesett. These

little vessels rammed the Albemarle, captured her store vessel, and she went back up the river. The Sassacus was disabled. The Albemarle came down the river once after that, but did no fighting.

Cushing decided that the Albemarle must be destroyed. There had been built in New York two small boats called picket boats. They were crude torpedo boats. A torpedo was attached to the end of a long pole which stuck out ten or twelve feet beyond the bow of each of the little boats. The end of the pole could be raised or lowered so as to place the torpedo at a given point above or below water, and then the torpedo could be exploded by a man who stood in the bow of the little boat and pulled a string. One of these torpedo boats was lost while being taken South, but Cushing took the other, with a party of twenty-two men beside himself, and started on the night of October 27, 1864, up the Roanoke River to blow the Albemarle to pieces. The Southern forces had expected such an attempt, and had placed a guard on the sunken steamer Southfield in the river with rockets and rifles, so as to alarm the force at Plymouth, which was protecting the Albemarle at that place. Cushing intended to surprise the guard on the Southfield and capture them before they could give warning of the coming of the party to the men at Plymouth. Before starting out he said to a friend:

“This means another stripe or a coffin.”



Military insignia of the United States navy.

(Rank of commodore exists no longer.)

The night was very dark and rain fell in showers. The little torpedo boat went up the river very slowly, and close to the bank in the gloom. Little by little they went near the sunken vessel Southfield. They got ready to spring aboard and fight the Southern soldiers there, but to their surprise the guard did not see them, although they passed within thirty yards of the vessel. Passing round a bend in the river, they came in sight of the town and of the fires of the double force of sentries who were on the bank. The fires had been allowed to go down, and Cushing and his men were not seen. He thought that he would be able to reach the town, land his men, rush on board the Albemarle, and either start down the river with her or blow her up. Just as he was within a very short distance of the ram a dog, which was really a better watch than the sentries, discovered the party and began to bark. Other dogs joined in, the sentries were aroused, bells and rattles were sounded, wood was heaped upon the fires, and in a few seconds after the alarms were sounded there was great noise where only a short time before there had been complete stillness. Soldiers ran to and fro, and officers were shouting their orders in the streets of the town.

Cushing had some of the men of his party in a small boat which he had towed up the river. He cut the small boat loose and ordered the men to go back and capture the force on the Southfield. Standing

erect in the bow of his torpedo boat, with his faithful Howarth beside him and with twelve other men, he steamed straight for the Albemarle, having given the order "ahead fast." When within a few yards of the ram he saw that a barrier of cypress logs had been built about her about fifteen feet away from the sides. He saw that he must get over that barrier before he could place his torpedo against the vessel. He ran one hundred yards up the river, made a sweeping turn, and, with the current of the river to help him, came down toward the ram at full speed. A volley of buck-shot swept over the little boat, tearing the back of Cushing's coat and ripping off the sole of his shoe. The crew of the Albemarle were running out their cannon, and, as the little boat came close to the barrier, Cushing called out at the top of his voice:

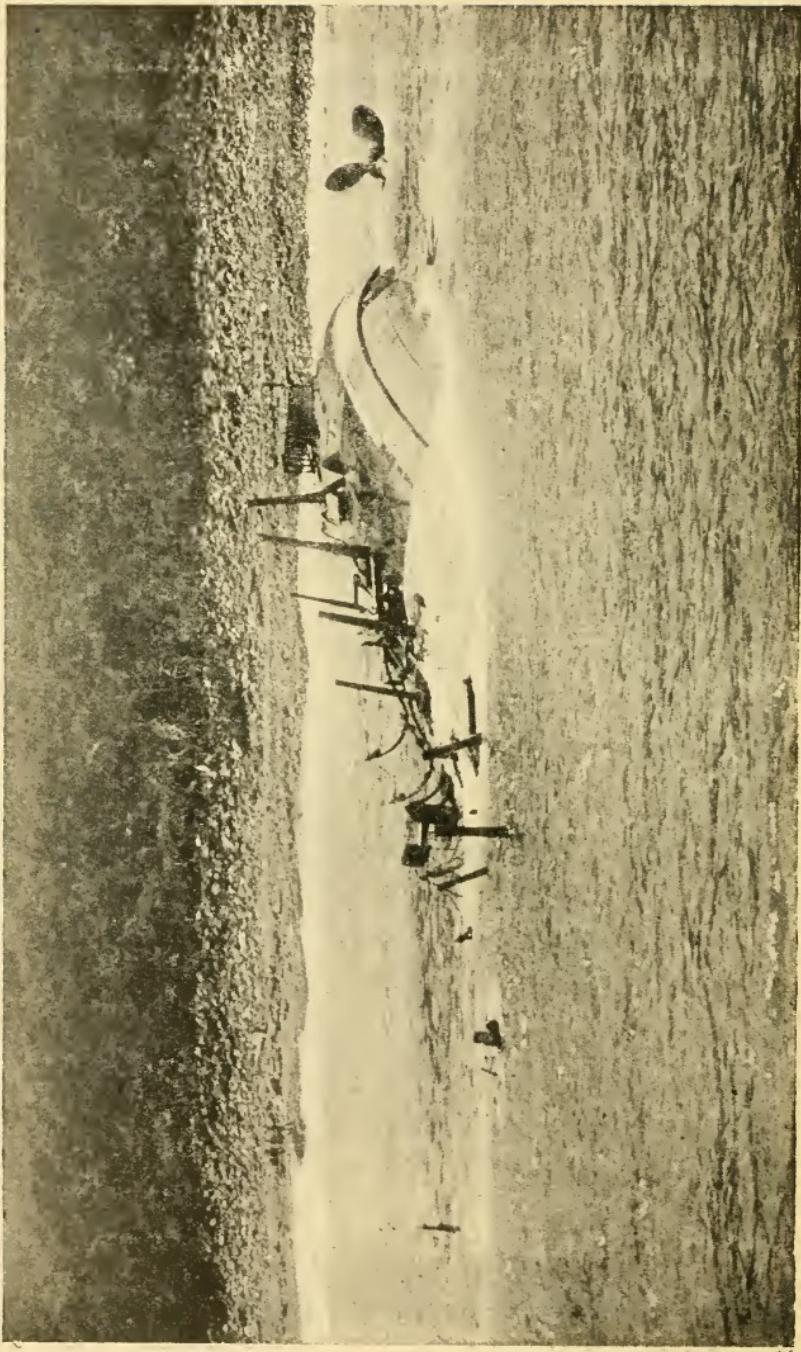
"Leave the ram. We're going to blow you up."

The little boat struck the barrier, the bow ran up and over the slippery logs, and the small cannon on the torpedo boat was fired. Instantly Cushing lowered the torpedo at the end of the spar, placed it close against the side of the Albemarle, and just as he was about to pull the string to explode the torpedo, the muzzle of one of the largest cannon on the ship was aimed straight down into his little craft. Cushing pulled the string, but not a second too soon. As the torpedo exploded the Albemarle was lifted a little, and the blast of the great cannon went a few inches

over the heads of Cushing and his men, instead of killing them all. The ram was wrecked completely.

Cushing called to every man of his party to save himself, and, taking off his coat and shoes, jumped into the river and swam down the stream. Half a mile below he met one of his party named Woodman, who was about to sink. Cushing struggled to save the man's life, but failed and was nearly drowned himself. He reached the shore and hid in a swamp all the next day. At night he learned from a negro that the Albemarle had been sunk. Taking a small skiff, he went down the river alone, and, half dead, he reached the Northern vessels. He was the only man of the party to escape. Two were drowned, and the rest were taken prisoners. Cushing again showed his bravery in the attack on Fort Fisher, when he led a party of sailors up the beach against the fort. He was made a commander in 1872, being the youngest man holding that grade in the navy. He died in Washington in 1874.

Some of the bravest men in the United States navy in the civil war were the pilots in the river steam-boats on the upper Mississippi and its branches. It was in the action at Fort Henry that two pilots were killed, Marshall H. Ford and James McBride. In the attack on Fort Donelson two more were killed, Frank Riley and William Hinton. Another pilot had been killed down the river near Fort Donelson a day



Wreck of the Cristobal Colon, on the beach at Rio Tarquino, fifty miles west of Santiago de Cuba.

before. These river pilots were brave because they knew it was almost certain death to them to go into action. The cannon of the Southern forts were aimed at the pilot houses first of all, in the hope of killing the men in them, thus disabling the vessels. Pilots were wounded in scores of fights along the Mississippi and up the streams that flow into it, especially from Arkansas.

Brave as these men were, there were others at various times during the war who showed their courage below decks when death seemed at hand, and there was little chance for escape. One of these men was on the Southern ram Arkansas, which passed through Farragut's entire fleet above Vicksburg. A large shot from one of the Northern vessels had entered the engine room of the Arkansas and set the ship on fire. A man named Stevens seized a hose, ran down into the engine room, and fought the fire all by himself, without having given an alarm. Another such brave man was Ensign George E. Wing, who commanded the powder division on the Northern vessel Metacomet while it was passing Fort Morgan in Farragut's fleet at the battle of Mobile Bay. A shell from the fort entered a storeroom and burst among the paints and oil and turpentine. Wing and his men rushed into the room with wet blankets and hammocks to put out the fire. The ship was doomed if the fire continued. Finally Wing called out to those above:

"Batten down the hatches and let us fight it out."

These men in this small storeroom were shut in with the flames and smoke all around them. They fought like heroes, and after a few minutes, during which they were burned badly, they came out with their clothes scorched and their faces and hands blackened with smoke. They had saved the ship.

It was during the same battle in Mobile Bay that George Taylor, an armorer, on the Northern vessel Lackawanna, showed great bravery. A shell had exploded in the Lackawanna's shellroom. Taylor, who was wounded, knew that in a few seconds the ship would be blown to pieces if that fire was not put out, and without any show of fear he coolly walked into the place and smothered the flames with his hands. Another hero, who was as fearless as Taylor, was First Assistant-Engineer James M. Hobby, of the small Northern vessel Sassacus, when the Sassacus was disabled by the Albemarle in their fight in 1864. The Sassacus was put out of action, and was drifting with the current. One of her boilers had been pierced, and there was danger that the other boilers would burst at once. Hobby called on his men to follow him into the fireroom and draw the fires. Quickly the men went with him, but Hobby worked harder than any of them and saved the ship. When he was brought back to the deck he was blind and helpless. Later he recovered his sight partly.

One of the greatest cases of heroism shown below deck during the war was that of John Davis, a native of Finland, who was in the Northern navy. He was a gunner's mate on board the steamer Valley City. At the fight off Elizabeth City, N. C., in 1862, one of the shells from a Southern vessel entered the magazine of the Valley City and exploded, setting fire to some woodwork. There was an open barrel of gunpowder standing near the fire. Davis had been serving out the powder from the barrel, and knew that if a spark reached it the ship would be blown to bits. He at once sat down in the mouth of the barrel, and remained there until the fire was put out. For this brave act Davis was rewarded by being promoted to the place of acting gunner, and by receiving the first medal of honor ever given by Congress to enlisted men in the navy for bravery. Some citizens of New York raised a purse of more than one thousand dollars and gave it to him. Although David Naylor, a powder boy of one of the large guns on the Oneida in Farragut's fleet at Mobile, did not have a chance to sit down in a barrel of powder and save his ship, like Davis, he showed that he was made of the same kind of stuff. He was running along the deck of the Oneida when a shell from Fort Morgan knocked his powder box out of his hands and sent it overboard. Naylor jumped overboard at once after his box, soon recovered it, clambered up the ship, and went running

about his work again as if nothing had happened. If he did not save his ship, he saved at least something that was very necessary to one of the big guns of the vessel.

Sometimes it is very hard to make men who have been wounded leave their posts during a fight. One of these cases occurred on the Brooklyn, in Farragut's fleet, while passing Forts Jackson and St. Philip. Quartermaster James Buck was wounded badly while standing at the wheel of the ship. He refused to take notice of his wound and for seven hours stood at his post without relief. One of the officers noticed that he was pale and found that he had been wounded. Buck even then refused to leave his place until commanded to do so by the officer. Early the next morning while no one was looking he stole to his station on the ship and steered the vessel from daylight until 1.30 o'clock in the afternoon. Captain Craven at that time found what he was doing and sent him back under the surgeon's care.

Devotion to duty was seen in the cases of many brave men found dead at their posts. One of these men was Chief-Engineer John Faron, of the monitor Tecumseh, which was sunk by torpedoes at the battle of Mobile Bay. Faron had been very sick, but insisted on leaving his bed to take his place in the engine room of his vessel. The night before the fight began he had received a letter from his wife. When the

divers found his body he stood with one hand upon a piece of machinery and in the other he held the letter from his wife, which he seemed to have been reading as he was drowned. He made no attempt to stir from his post when death came. Of course the most noted case of courage and of absence of fear on that ship when she sank was that of Captain Craven, who sent the pilot up the ladder ahead of himself and lost his own life.

There were many cases where men were exposed to almost certain death and yet went about their work as if it were nothing unusual. One of these men was Thomas Hollins, who stood out on the deck of the Brooklyn, casting the lead as the ship went by Fort St. Philip. Shot and shell raged all about him, but every few minutes his voice was heard shouting out the depth of water. When opposite the fort the Brooklyn was so close to the cannon of the enemy that the faces of the men on the Brooklyn were almost scorched by the blasts from the fort. Hollins stood at his post without flinching, and at the very worst part of the fight called out that the ship had thirteen feet of water to spare. Another man who did not flinch when death seemed certain was Ensign Henry C. Neilds at the battle of Mobile Bay. When the Tecumseh went down he manned a small boat and put out in the rain of shot and shell to save as many drowning men as he could. He forgot in his hurry

to hoist a small flag on his boat, and was in danger of being shot to pieces by the gunners of the Northern fleet as well as by those of the Southern fort. Some one called to him to raise his flag. He stood up in his boat, fixed the flag, and then sat down as the bullets were flying all about him. It was a gallant act and General Page, the commander of the Southern fort, who saw the deed, said to his men:

“Don’t fire on that boat; she is saving drowning men.”

One of the large guns of the ram Tennessee was aimed at the little boat at the time, but when the gunners saw young Neilds raise the flag, they were so pleased with his bravery that they raised the muzzle of the gun and fired over him instead of at him. It was during this same fight at Mobile Bay that Farragut, when he had decided to finish up the ram Tennessee, asked Fleet-Surgeon Palmer to go in a small boat to all the monitors and tell them to attack the Tennessee. Bullets and shells were flying in every direction, but Palmer did as he was ordered and escaped with his life. Another man who showed unusual absence of fear during this Mobile fight was Commander Thomas H. Stevens, of the monitor Winnebago. He remained exposed on the deck of his ship, walking from one turret to the other during the entire contest. At one time when the fire was very hot he was cheered by the crew of another ship. He went to the side of his

vessel, took off his hat and bowed, and then went about his work. A case of bravery that won attention was that of the secretary to Admiral Farragut, Mr. Gabaudan. In April, 1863, Farragut had just passed Port Hudson after a terrible fight. Only two of his vessels got by the earthworks on the river. Farragut wanted to send a message to some of his vessels below Port Hudson, and Mr. Gabaudan got into a small skiff, covered the boat with twigs, so as to make it look like a floating log, lay down inside the little craft, and drifted past the batteries in safety.

Gunner William W. Carter showed great bravery in the harbor of Galveston, Texas, on November 7, 1861. Lieutenant James E. Jouett had taken forty men in two boats, and had stolen into the harbor to destroy some Southern vessels there. His boats were discovered and the order was given to run away, but Carter, who was in one of the boats, made a dash at a Southern vessel called the Royal Yacht. The boat touched the vessel and he leaped aboard. Just then the small boat drifted away and there he was alone, fighting with sword and pistol against the entire Southern crew, until Jouett came to his help, and with his own sword cut his way to Carter's side, after Carter had been wounded.

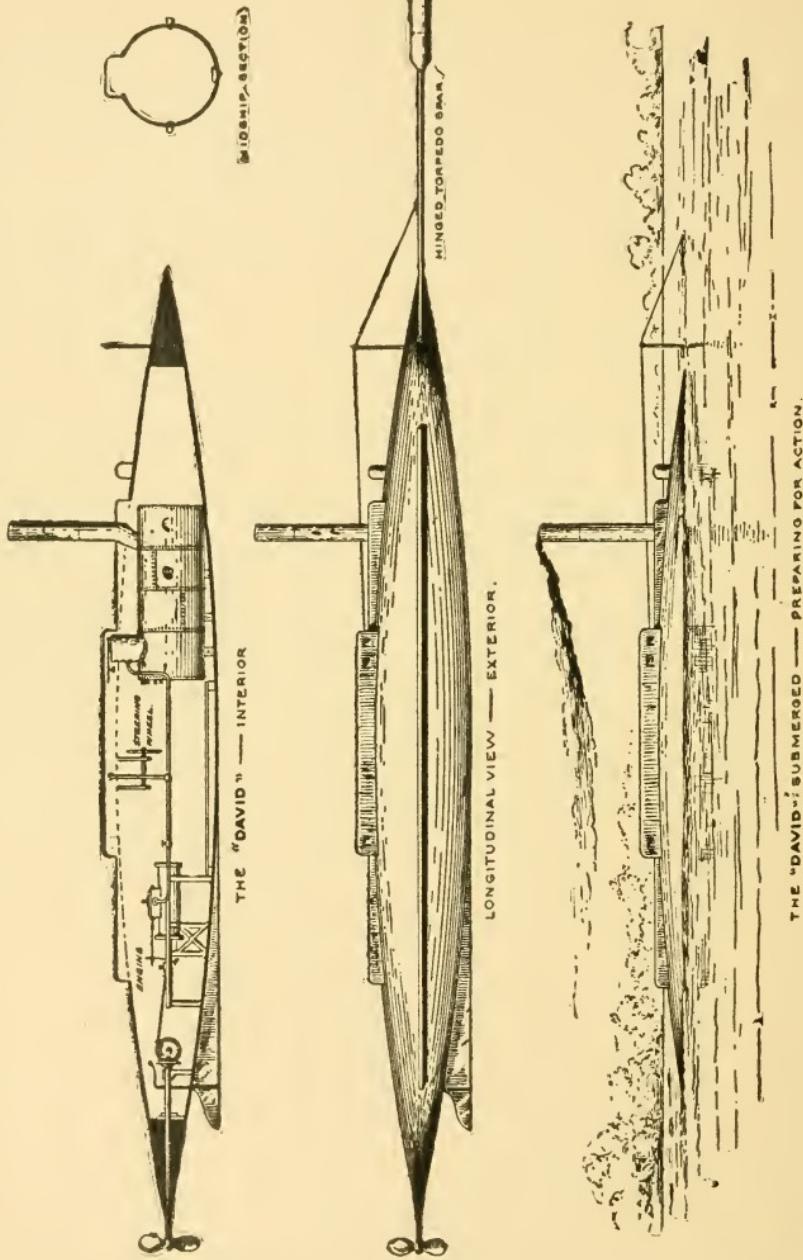
Mention might be made at great length of scores of these cases of bravery, but after all they tell only one story, and that is true love of country. Thousands

of men who had no chance to play the part of heroes would have shown themselves just as courageous as those who did win attention. The same credit is due to the men who stood beside their guns not knowing whether they would be killed as to those who offered to do and who did do heroic deeds that were to become known widely.

CHAPTER X.

QUEER BOATS USED IN THE CIVIL WAR.

THE war between the North and South caused many queer boats, such as had never before been seen in warfare, to be built and used before the four years' strife ended. The South had no navy to begin with, and could secure very little iron with which to build one. The North had had a navy, but its use chiefly was for fighting on the ocean, and not on rivers and shallow bays and sounds. The South built some iron-clads like the Merrimac, and the North had to build monitors to overmatch them. Both of these types of ships were new. The South also made use of some small vessels, not much larger than tugboats, but they were of little account in the fighting. In her naval warfare the South depended chiefly upon the many rams, like the Merrimac, that were built and at last lost, and also upon another queer kind of craft, such as had never before been used in war, called "Davids." The North's queer boats, in addition to the monitors,



The David, submarine boat, used by the South.

were known as "double-enders" and "tinclads." The double-enders and tinclads were used in the rivers and shallow waters, in which the ships of the North were compelled to fight so much.

Of all the queer boats that were used on both sides during the war the Davids were the queerest. They were really submarine boats. The idea was an old one, as old as the time of the Revolution, but no one had ever tried them with success in war. The first one of these boats used in the civil war was built at Charleston, by a man named Theodore D. Stoney. She was called David because she was supposed to be able to destroy a large war ship, as David in the Bible killed the giant Goliath. This boat was used first on October 5, 1863, when an attempt was made, as has been told already, to blow up the North's great ironclad and first modern battle ship, the New Ironsides. The David was fifty-four feet long, and shaped like a cigar. Steam was used in her, and when she was ready to fight only the funnel and a little sighting tower appeared above the water. A torpedo on a spar was attached to the boat, and when the boat came near an enemy's ship the plan was to push this torpedo against the other ship and explode it. In the attack on the New Ironsides the torpedo seemed to have been exploded before it was placed against the side of the Northern vessel.

The David was under command of a man named

W. T. Glassell. He had three men with him. A little after nine o'clock on the evening of October 5, 1863, several officers on the New Ironsides saw what they thought at first was a long plank floating near their ship. The object moved straight toward the ship, and the Northern officers knew that some kind of trouble was in store for them. They called out, and the reply to their hail was a rifle shot, which wounded one of the Northern officers. A moment later there was a great explosion under the water close beside the New Ironsides. The ship was lifted partly from the water and was shaken severely. One man on board had his leg broken. The strange boat that looked like a plank disappeared; her crew of four men had jumped overboard, and their boat floated away in the darkness. Glassell and another man swam to Northern vessels and were taken prisoners; the two remaining men swam back to the David, climbed into her, and in the night took the boat back to Charleston. That boat was never used again, and when the war was over was found, with eight others like her, in one of the small rivers near Charleston.

The success of the first David led the Southern naval men to build another on the same general plan, but not so long, and able to contain a larger crew. This boat was only thirty-five feet long, but the crew consisted of nine men. Instead of using steam to make the boat go, eight of the crew worked the machinery

by hand; the other man steered the boat and exploded the torpedo.

This boat was built in Mobile, and was brought overland to Charleston. She could be sunk to any depth, and could be made to go under water in any direction. Her speed was only about four knots an hour. The plan was to have the boat pass under an enemy's vessel, dragging a floating torpedo which was to explode when the torpedo struck the side of the enemy's ship. She was tried on the Northern vessel Housatonic on February 16, 1864, off Charleston harbor. She sank the Housatonic, and all the men on the David were lost. Before that time, however, the David had had a career in which death played the chief part. Five times were most of the crew drowned. On the trial trip of the boat in Charleston harbor Lieutenant Payne took the vessel out with eight men. The wash of a passing steamer swamped the boat, and all but Payne were drowned. The boat was raised and taken to a wharf at Fort Sumter, where a second trial was held. The men did not know how to manage the vessel very well, and she sank, drowning six of the crew. Lieutenant Payne escaped again. The boat was raised again, and was taken up the Stono River, near Charleston, where a man named Hundley, who was one of her builders, took charge of her. With a crew of eight men he made several successful dives, but finally the vessel poked

her nose into the mud and could not be made to come to the surface. There was no reserve of air in the boat, and every man inside was suffocated. Again the David was raised, and again brave men offered to run the vessel. Many attempts were made to work the boat and they proved successful. Finally, while passing under a ship called the Indian Chief, a cable fouled the David, and once more all the men inside were drowned.

Again the David was raised, and Lieutenant George E. Dixon asked permission to use her against the Housatonic. He had no trouble in getting a crew. In time of war brave men can always be found to face certain death. Permission was given to Dixon and his volunteers to try to sink the Housatonic, if they would not work the David under water, but would move along the surface. It was just before nine o'clock on the evening of February 17, 1864, when the David was discovered within one hundred yards of the Housatonic. She looked like a plank in the water, but the Northern officers had had experience with such a plank in the case of the New Ironsides, and an alarm was rung throughout the ship. The anchor was slipped and the Housatonic made to back, but before she went very far a great explosion occurred, and a large hole was made in the side of the vessel beneath the water.

There was great confusion at once when it was seen

that the Housatonic was sinking. In four minutes the splendid sloop of war went down, and five of the crew and two officers were drowned. The others on the boat ran up the rigging and were rescued by boats from Northern vessels that were near. The David was not seen again, and it is said that two years afterward she was found about four hundred yards from the place where the Housatonic sank. The men who died in the David from the time her career began until it ended were as brave as any the war produced. They had the bravery of true Americans.

Although everybody was lost on the second David, it was not long before another attempt was made to destroy another Northern vessel by one of these boats. It was about one o'clock of the morning of March 6, 1864, that the lookout on the steamer Memphis, which was in the North Edisto River, near Charleston, saw a David approaching the vessel. An alarm was sounded at once, and all the crew hurried to their places. The David was so near the Memphis that the guns of the vessel could not be fired at her. Every man who could seize a rifle, revolver, or pistol, shot at the little craft, which stopped for a minute. Then the David started ahead again, but it was seen that she had broken down in some way and she drifted away from the Memphis, which after a time fired a cannon shot at her. She disappeared in the darkness, and, al-

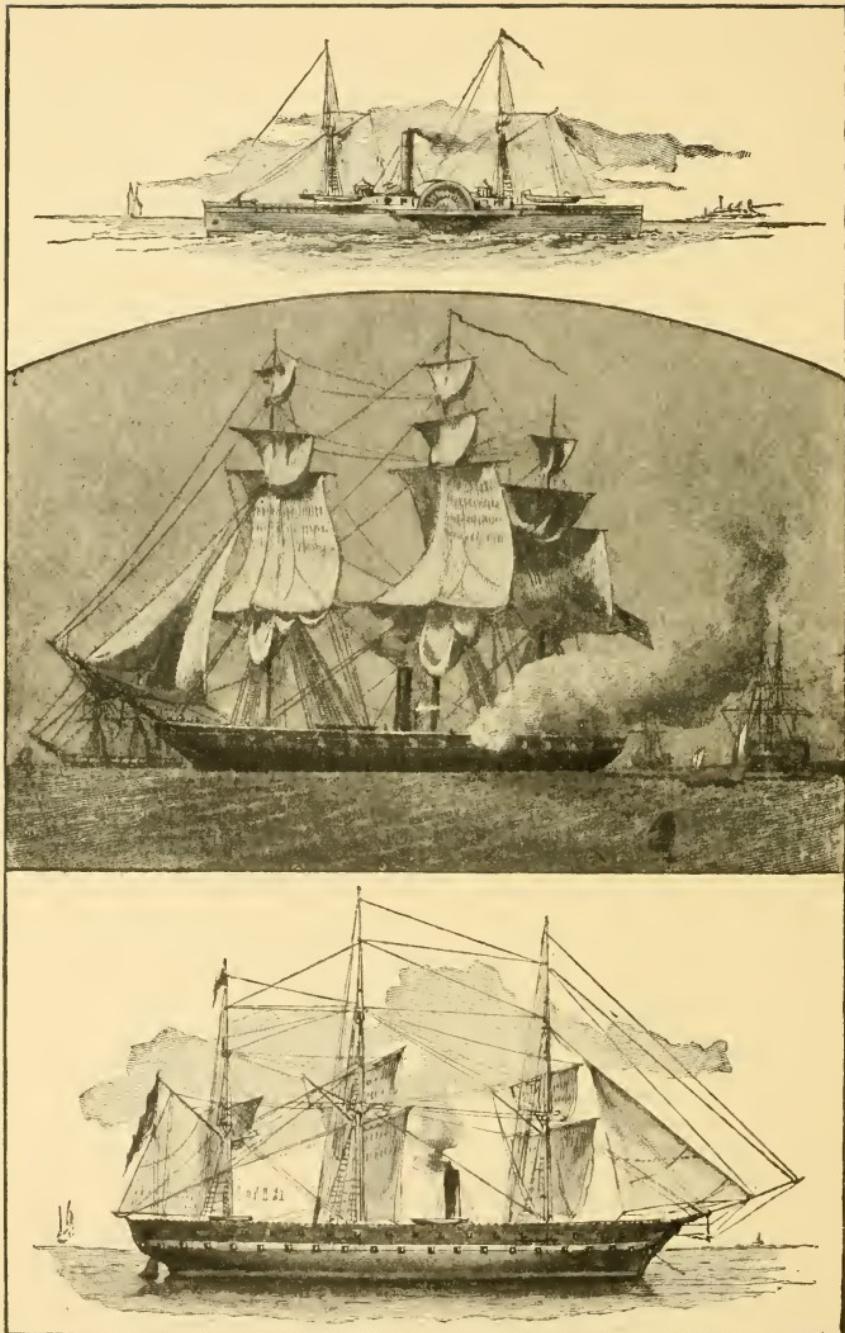
though an armed boat was sent out to try to capture her, she could not be found.

About a month later, on April 9, 1864, an attempt was made by one of these little boats to blow up the steam frigate Minnesota, then lying off Newport News, at the mouth of the James River. There was a large fleet there. The captains of the Northern vessels, by this time, were on the watch for Davids, and kept small boats moving about the fleet constantly. The watch on the Minnesota at 1.45 A. M. saw a small boat adrift, about one hundred and fifty yards away. The tugboat Poppy was protecting the Minnesota at the time, but was not on the same side of that vessel as the small torpedo boat. This torpedo boat was really not a David, because it could not go under the water; it was a launch which carried a torpedo on a spar. The officer of the deck on the Minnesota called to the little boat and asked what vessel she was. The reply came back that she was the Roanoke. The officer warned the little boat not to come near, and trained a cannon upon her. Some of the sentries fired at her also. Before the cannon could be fired a torpedo was exploded against the Minnesota, doing great damage to the ship, but not sinking her. Fifty-three pounds of powder were exploded against the vessel.

On April 19th of the same year an attempt was made off Charleston harbor to destroy the steam frig-

ate Wabash by a David. The Northern vessels were keeping such a good lookout by this time for these boats that the David was seen before she was very close. A furious alarm was sounded on the Wabash at once, the anchor was slipped, and the frigate, firing her broadside of guns and as many rifles as her crew could seize, ran off in the darkness at full speed. Here was a big vessel with a crew of several hundred men put to flight out on the ocean by a boat scarcely larger than a good-sized whaleboat, with only four men in her, and having for a weapon only a few pounds of powder on the end of a stick. These Davids, however, led to the building of modern submarine boats, which at the present day seem almost perfected.

The boats that the South depended most upon in fighting the ships of the North were the rams which were built after the Merrimac was blown up, and which were made in general after the plan of that vessel. Next to the Merrimac, the Tennessee was the most famous of these, and, as has been told, did splendid fighting at the battle of Mobile Bay. The Tennessee fought the entire Northern fleet before she was beaten and captured. Another famous vessel of this class was the Albemarle, which, as was told in the chapter before this, was blown up and destroyed by Cushing on the Roanoke River. The ram Arkansas was another of these vessels which fought almost an entire Northern fleet. She was the one that was built



Types of United States vessels used during the civil war.
Third class. Second class. First class.

at Yazoo, Miss., and which came down the Yazoo River on July 15, 1862, putting three Northern gun-boats to flight. She then passed through Farragut's fleet, which was at anchor above Vicksburg, doing great damage, and anchored under the forts at Vicksburg. Farragut tried to destroy her two days later as he passed down the river, but he did not succeed.

It was on July 22d of that year that Commodore W. D. Porter decided to destroy the Arkansas. With four vessels he ran by the forts at Vicksburg and attacked the Arkansas. Porter had command of the Essex, and tried to run down the Arkansas. He saw that his own ship would probably be sunk and steered off, firing three solid nine-inch shot at the Arkansas, which was only fifty yards away. The shots killed eight men and wounded six others out of the forty-eight on the Arkansas. The Essex ran aground, but soon got out of the mud and went down the river. The Northern ram Queen of the West struck the Arkansas and injured her, but the Queen of the West was damaged more than the Arkansas, and Colonel Alfred E. Ellet was glad to escape up the river with his boat. The Arkansas was still in fighting condition. On August 3, 1862, she went down the Mississippi to attack the Northern fort at Baton Rouge. Her machinery broke down and she ran aground. When the Southern men on board saw the Essex, which Commodore Porter commanded, coming

near the Arkansas, they blew her up, and that was the end of that ram.

Another famous ram on the Mississippi was the Manassas. She was the vessel which caused so much trouble to Farragut's fleet as it was passing the forts below New Orleans. The Brooklyn had a fierce fight with the Manassas, and after the Brooklyn had passed up the stream the Manassas tried to follow the Northern fleet and sink some of them. The Captain of the Northern vessel Mississippi saw her and turned to fight her. The Manassas started to run away, and became fast in the mud. Her crew saw there was no chance for them, and they leaped into the water and swam ashore. The Mississippi fired two broadsides into her and blew her loose from the mud. She floated down the river in flames, and a short distance below the forts exploded and was destroyed. She was the vessel that a few months before had put a Northern squadron to flight at the mouths of the Mississippi.

Another ram that caused the fleet under Farragut some alarm at the battle of New Orleans was the Louisiana. She was the most heavily armed of all the Southern rams. She was not quite finished when Farragut went up the river. Her engines were never used, but her guns were in good shape, and she was towed to a place near the forts below New Orleans where she could fight the

Northern ships as they passed up. She did good work with her guns. The two forts on the river were surrendered on April 28, 1862. The South meant that the Louisiana should not fall into Northern hands, and while plans were being made for the surrender the Louisiana was set on fire at the place where she was moored. The fire soon burned the ropes that held her fast, and she drifted down the river in flames. She was fast approaching some Northern ships, to which she would probably have set fire, when she blew up. She was opposite Fort St. Philip at the time, and her guns, which had been left loaded, were set off, killing a Southern soldier in the fort and nearly killing Captain McIntosh, her former commander, who was dying at the time of a mortal wound.

When Farragut reached New Orleans above the forts he found many vessels there which he destroyed. Among them was the ram Mississippi, which the Southern men had said would be "the greatest vessel in the world." She was two hundred and seventy feet long, fifty-eight feet wide, could carry sixteen guns, and was planned to go at the rate of eleven knots an hour. She cost two million dollars. She had been launched only six days when Farragut came up the river. Had he delayed his attack on the two forts below the city for a few weeks, the Mississippi would probably have done great damage to his fleet. He arrived at New Orleans just at the right time to catch

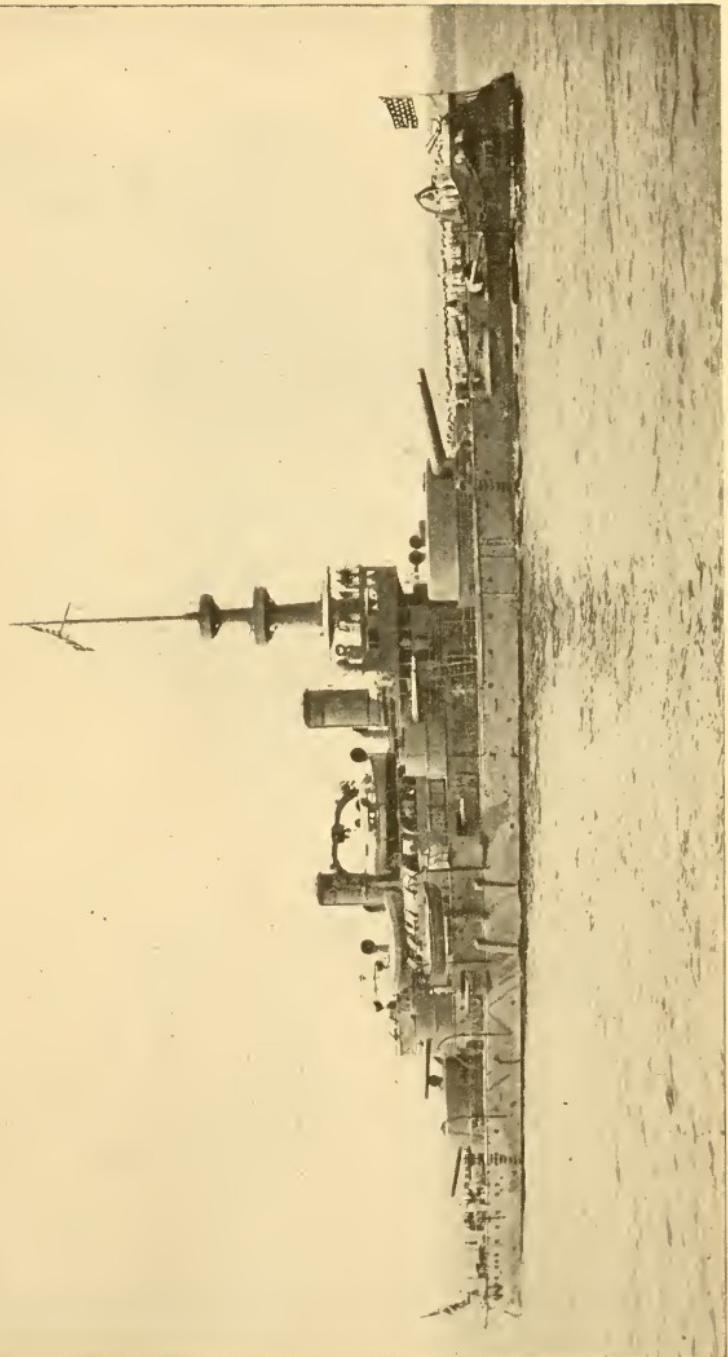
the ram. In the great confusion the Southern naval men forgot to tow her up the river into the Yazoo Valley where the Arkansas was finished, and where the Mississippi might have been completed for future work against the Northern ships.

Another ram on the Mississippi that caused the Northern vessels serious trouble was the Tennessee, which took part in the battle of Memphis. She was a sister ship to the Arkansas, and both fought on the Southern side in that battle. Both were nearly captured at the time, but the Arkansas escaped and went up the Yazoo River, from which she came down, as has been told, and passed through Farragut's fleet. The Tennessee, to avoid capture at the battle of Memphis, was burned. After 1863 the Northern ships had no more trouble from these rams on the Mississippi.

Along the Atlantic coast the Northern vessels still had to meet these rams. The attack of the Chicora and Palmetto State, which were built after the plan of the Merrimac, on the vessels of the Northern fleet off Charleston in the fog has already been told. There were two other of these rams at Charleston, the Charleston and Columbia. These seem not to have been used by the South in fighting around Charleston. When the city was given up to the Northern soldiers in 1865, all four of these rams were found sunk and partly destroyed.

The career of the ram Atlanta, which was cap-

Battleship Oregon.



tured at the mouth of Wassaw Sound by the monitor Weehawken, when two boatloads of people came down from Savannah to see the fight, has already been described in part. The Atlanta was the only one of the Southern rams that saw service in the Northern navy. After she was captured she was on guard with other Northern ships at the mouth of the James River, when, on January 23, 1865, three Southern rams, the Fredericksburg, Richmond, and Virginia No. 2, which had been built up the James, came down the river. The Virginia and the Richmond ran aground, but floated off and all went back up the river. There was no more trouble with that group of vessels.

In addition to the Albemarle, destroyed by Cushing, the South built two more rams on the North Carolina sounds. One of these was the North Carolina and the other was the Raleigh. On the night of May 17, 1864, the North Carolina came out of New Inlet, and fired several shots at five small vessels of the North on blockade duty. The shots did little damage, and the North Carolina went back up the stream and never came down again. After the war was over she and the Raleigh were found wrecked a short distance below Wilmington.

The only ram the South owned that was not built there and that saw service was one called the Stonewall. She was one of six vessels built for the South in France, and was also the only one of the group to

leave that country. She went to Ferrol, Spain, in March, 1865, where the Northern vessels Niagara and Sacramento found her. The Stonewall was very heavily armed, and Commodore Craven, who was in charge of the Northern vessels, decided not to fight her because he thought his vessels would be lost. He therefore let the Stonewall leave the harbor. She went at once to Lisbon and after that to Havana, where she was when the war ended. Spain gave her up to the United States, and she was sold afterward to Japan. She saw no fighting in the war.

Early in 1862 the North saw that if it would cope with the Southern troops along the Mississippi and its branches, it must have a new kind of vessel, to go up the shallow streams and engage with soldiers along the banks. This kind of fighting was sometimes called "bushwhacking." Riflemen and sharpshooters would be hidden in the brush and grass along the small rivers to pick off men on Northern vessels that might be passing. It was necessary, therefore, to build a fleet of what were called tinclads. They were small steamers with stern wheels and covered all around to a height of eleven feet with sheet iron, from one half to three quarters of an inch thick. Ordinary bullets could not pierce this iron. The boilers had an extra plating of iron. The boats drew three feet of water but sometimes only twenty inches. They could carry about one hundred and fifty men as a crew. They

generally had eight small guns. They couldn't fight against forts very well or against large ships, but they could fight with light artillery and infantry on a river bank, and they showed their value many times in the rivers, fighting along the branches of the Mississippi. One of these occasions was on January 9 and 10, 1863, when the nine tinclads in Porter's fleet, with three strong vessels to help them, went fifty miles up the Arkansas River to assist the army in taking Arkansas Post. The tinclads fought furiously, and it was not long before the seventeen guns in the fort were put out of action. The fort was forced to give up before the army could get into position to attack it.

Another class of boats that the North built, and that became well known, was the kind known as double-enders. These were used in narrow rivers and channels, chiefly along the Atlantic coast. They were very small boats, and drew only a few feet of water. They were like ferryboats, in that they had a rudder at each end, and were unlike ferryboats in that each end had a sharp bow. These boats could go backward or forward, as the case might be, and they were of great use in the very small streams, because when they wanted to run away or make a quick advance they never had to turn around. Most of them carried eight small guns, and two or three had twelve guns. They were all of about one thousand tons' weight, and after the war most of them were sold. Altogether the

North built forty-seven of these double-enders during the war. They did good work in the North Carolina sounds and along the coast. Among them were the Metacomet, Sassacus, Wyalusing, Mattabesett, and others mentioned in these chapters.

The one type of boats which appeared for the first time during the civil war, and which has lasted until the present day, was the type known as monitors. The great fight of the original Monitor against the Merrimac showed that the right idea had been used in building her, and the North hurried to build some more. It was plain that the old wooden fighting ship was doomed. Nine of these monitors, all alike and a little larger than the original Monitor, were built first. These were the monitors which took a leading part in the fighting in and about Charleston harbor. Then there were built what were called light-draught monitors. It was intended to use these against Fort Fisher and on the small rivers of the South. A mistake was made in their plans, so that they did not float in the water at the proper height. Most of them were broken up at the end of the war. Before the fighting was over the North had built thirteen monitors with double turrets, and these are the type of the strictly strongest fighting vessels of to-day. They lie low in the water, have a very thick turret and armor, and for mere fighting naval experts have said they are the best kind of vessel.

The North built more than forty monitors of various sizes during the war. After the war was ended one of them, the Miantonomoh, was sent to England, to show that it was possible for that kind of vessel to cross the ocean. The Miantonomoh is still in the United States navy. Another of the monitors, the Monadnock, went around South America, from New York to San Francisco. While these boats are not fast, they are what is known as good sea boats, because they do not roll and pitch as much as ordinary vessels do in storms at sea. The waves break over their flat decks and roll off quickly. If they could carry more coal there is little doubt that they could go anywhere and ride out any gale.

CHAPTER XI.

VESSELS DESTROYED BY TORPEDOES.

EARLY in 1862 the South saw that probably the only way it could overcome the Northern navy would be to destroy the ships by torpedoes. The effort of the South to build a navy did not have the result that was desired. The ships of the North could sail into the rivers and bays of the South, and could blockade the coasts without fear of meeting Southern ships of a similar size. Aside from the rams of the South, the other vessels which were made into war ships really amounted to very little. There was only one thing to do in order to keep the Northern ships away from the forts on the ocean front or up the rivers, and that was to use some means of destroying them.

Up to the time of the civil war torpedoes had not been used much. The Russians had planted them in and near the Black Sea in the Crimean War, but no ships were destroyed. Most of the naval officers in the United States navy at that time believed that the use of torpedoes was inhuman and unchristian. When the South first began to sprinkle its bays and rivers

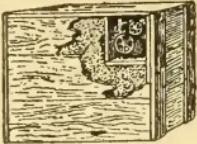
with them in 1862 it was done in secret, and some of the men engaged in it felt that perhaps it was a wrong kind of warfare. However, there was nothing else to be done, and in October, 1862, a secret service was formed for this work alone. Soon after that the North began to have great difficulty in its naval work along the coast. When the great battles of Hatteras, Port Royal, and New Orleans were fought, the Northern vessels met no torpedoes, while later, at the fights at Wilmington, Charleston, and Mobile, torpedoes were found in large numbers and they did great damage to Northern ships. Altogether, seven monitors and eleven wooden vessels of the North were destroyed by these torpedoes. All the cannon in the Southern forts from the beginning to the end of the war did not do so much damage to the ships of the North as the torpedoes did.

Torpedoes in the civil war were found first on February 18, 1862, in the Savannah River above Fort Pulaski. They were water-tight tin cases, filled with powder, and were stretched across the river at regular intervals, the cable to which they were attached being fastened below the water on each bank. An anchor held the torpedoes, so that at high tide they were not to be seen, but at low tide they floated on the surface of the water. An electric wire ran to them, in order to explode them. The Northern ships saw these torpedoes at low tide and gathered up some of them. No

damage came to the boats from them. Hundreds of torpedoes like these were soon found in small rivers and bays, but they did almost no damage to Northern ships.

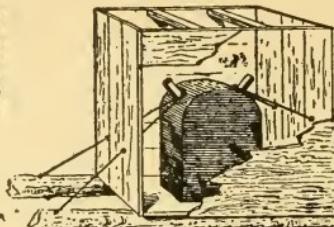
During the winter of 1862-'63 the secret service bureau of the South, which had charge of the torpedo warfare, planned three kinds of these weapons; they were the frame torpedoes, the floating torpedoes, and the electric torpedoes. The frame torpedoes were generally made by placing large caps containing gunpowder on a wooden frame, which was fastened at one end to a dock or some piling. The other end of the frame would rise and fall with the water, and a ship running across the frame would strike the torpedoes, explode them, and be blown up itself. These torpedoes could be used only in shallow streams, but scores of them were found in the small rivers about Charleston. No ship ever got past one of these sets. Two years after the war, the United States gunboat *Jonquil* was nearly destroyed at Charleston while removing one of these frames.

The floating torpedoes were made from beer kegs chiefly. Some were also made of tin, and both kinds were set off when a boat struck the firing caps that stuck out from the torpedoes in several places. These floating torpedoes contained from seventy to one hundred and twenty pounds of powder, and they were the most dangerous and the cheapest used in the war.



CLOCK-WORM
TORPEDO.

USED AT
CITY POINT, JAMES RIVER -
AUG, 9, 1864.

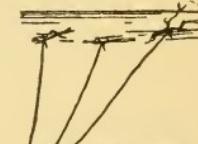
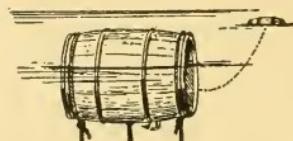


COAL TORPEDO.
TO CONCEAL IN FUEL.

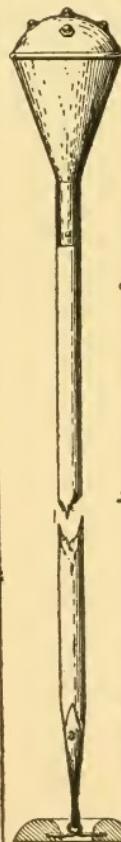


THE KEG TORPEDO.

RAFT TORPEDO WITH IRON POWDER TANK

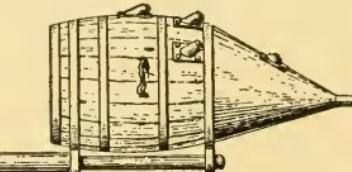


DRIFT TORPEDO.

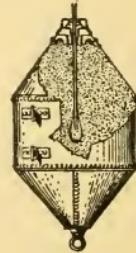


SPAR
TORPEDO
MADE WITH
COPPER SODA WATER
TANK

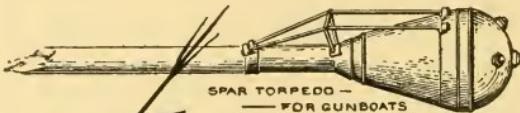
BARREL TORPEDO - INFERNAL MACHINE



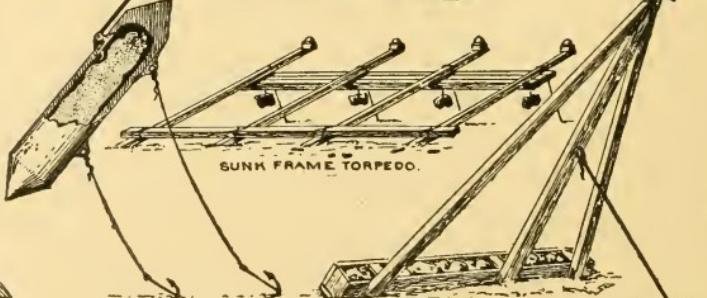
IRON SPAR — RAM TORPEDO
USED ON THE "CHARLESTON."



ELECTRIC —
TORPEDO.



SPAR TORPEDO —
FOR GUNBOATS



SUNK FRAME TORPEDO.

BUDVANT
SPAR
TORPEDO.

PRONGED TORPEDO.
VESSELS MAY
PASS ONE WAY SAFELY.

FRAME TORPEDO.
WEIGHTED TO ANGLE OF RESISTANCE.

Torpedoes used by the South.

Two Southern steamers, the Marion and Ettowan, were blown up by accident in Charleston harbor while putting them down. Another Southern boat, called the Schultz, was destroyed by one on the James River while under a flag of truce, several Southern prisoners who had been received from the North in exchange being killed.

The electric torpedoes were generally very large, and were planted in the mud over which Northern ships would have to pass to attack a fort. Some of these torpedoes contained as much as two thousand pounds of gunpowder. They were blown up by electricity from a distance. They were the beginning of the harbor mine as it is known to-day.

Then there were other kinds of small torpedoes, the chief of which were the clockwork and the coal torpedoes. The clockwork torpedo was simply a small box containing gunpowder, with some clockwork inside, which at the end of a given time set off the box. This kind of torpedo was used to blow up storehouses and magazines. At City Point, on the James River, in 1864, a man who was supposed to be an ordinary laborer carried one of these clockwork torpedoes on board a Northern barge loaded with powder. Soon the torpedo exploded, and the barge, the wharves, several storehouses, and vessels were destroyed, and a number of men killed. The coal torpedo was a block of cast iron, in the shape of a lump of steam-

boat coal. It contained about ten pounds of powder, and on the outside there was a mixture of tar and coal dust, so that it was impossible to tell a torpedo by sight from a large chunk of coal. These coal torpedoes were hidden by spies in the coal heaps from which Northern vessels were supplied. When they were thrown into the fire, of course they exploded. The Northern steamer Greyhound, one of the finest vessels on the James River, was blown up by one of the coal torpedoes while General Butler and Admiral Porter were on board. They and the crew of the ship escaped with some difficulty to the shore.

It was on December 12, 1862, that the first Northern vessel was lost through torpedoes. Captain Walke had been sent up the Yazoo River with the ironclad Cairo, one of the strongest of the Northern vessels on the Mississippi, and four small boats to attack the Southern navy yard at Yazoo, and destroy the vessels there. About sixteen miles from the mouth of the river floating torpedoes were seen, and the gun-boat Marmora began to shoot at them. The commander of the Cairo hurried to the Marmora with his ship, but before he reached the other vessel two explosions were felt beneath the Cairo, and in twelve minutes she sank out of sight, except the tops of her smokestacks. Although half a dozen men were hurt, no one was drowned.

Another ironclad of great strength was lost in the

Yazoo River through torpedoes on July 22, 1863. She was the De Kalb. She was going up the river to assist in an attack on Yazoo City, and was badly damaged by a floating torpedo which did not come to the surface of the water and could not be seen. She sank in fifteen minutes. Many of her crew were hurt, but no one was killed. The vessel was completely wrecked, and although an attempt was made to raise her it came to nothing. A fate like that of the De Kalb came to the ironclad Eastport on the Red River during the famous Red River expedition by the army and the navy. When the ships were coming back, after the army had been beaten along the river, the Eastport struck a small floating torpedo and went to the bottom, no lives being lost.

It was along the Atlantic coast that the greatest damage was done to Northern ships by these vessels. The first Northern boat injured on the James River was the Commodore Barney, on August 8, 1863. General Foster went up the river on the Barney to within a few miles of Drewry's Bluff. On coming back, an electric torpedo was exploded just after the Barney had passed over it. A great waterspout was thrown up and twenty of the crew were washed overboard. Several of them were drowned. The Barney was damaged severely, but was repaired afterward.

On May 4, 1864, an expedition of the army and navy went up the James River to seize City Point and

Bermuda Hundred. General Grant and his army were in that neighborhood, and the James River expedition was intended to help him. There were eight or ten gunboats in the fleet that went up the river. It was necessary to go very slowly, because a company of sailors had to march along the southern bank of the river to search for wires that were used in exploding torpedoes in the stream. The fleet reached a sharp bend in the river at a place called Deep Bottom. A negro went aboard one of the ships at this place, and gave the news that there were a large number of torpedoes in the river at that place.

A gunboat named the Commodore Jones was in the lead of the fleet, and had small boats out in front and behind searching for torpedoes. The men on the river bank could find no wires. An order was signaled to the Jones to back because she was in danger, and just as her wheels began to turn a great explosion occurred. It seemed as if the bottom of the river was torn up and blown through the vessel itself. The Jones was lifted almost entirely clear of the water, and she burst in the air like an exploding firecracker. She was in small pieces when she struck the water again. No one knew exactly how many were killed, but it was estimated that not less than forty officers and men lost their lives. One of the strangest escapes was that of an engineer who was working at the machinery. He was in the bottom of the boat, and was

blown up with that part of the vessel, but landed in the water without serious injury.

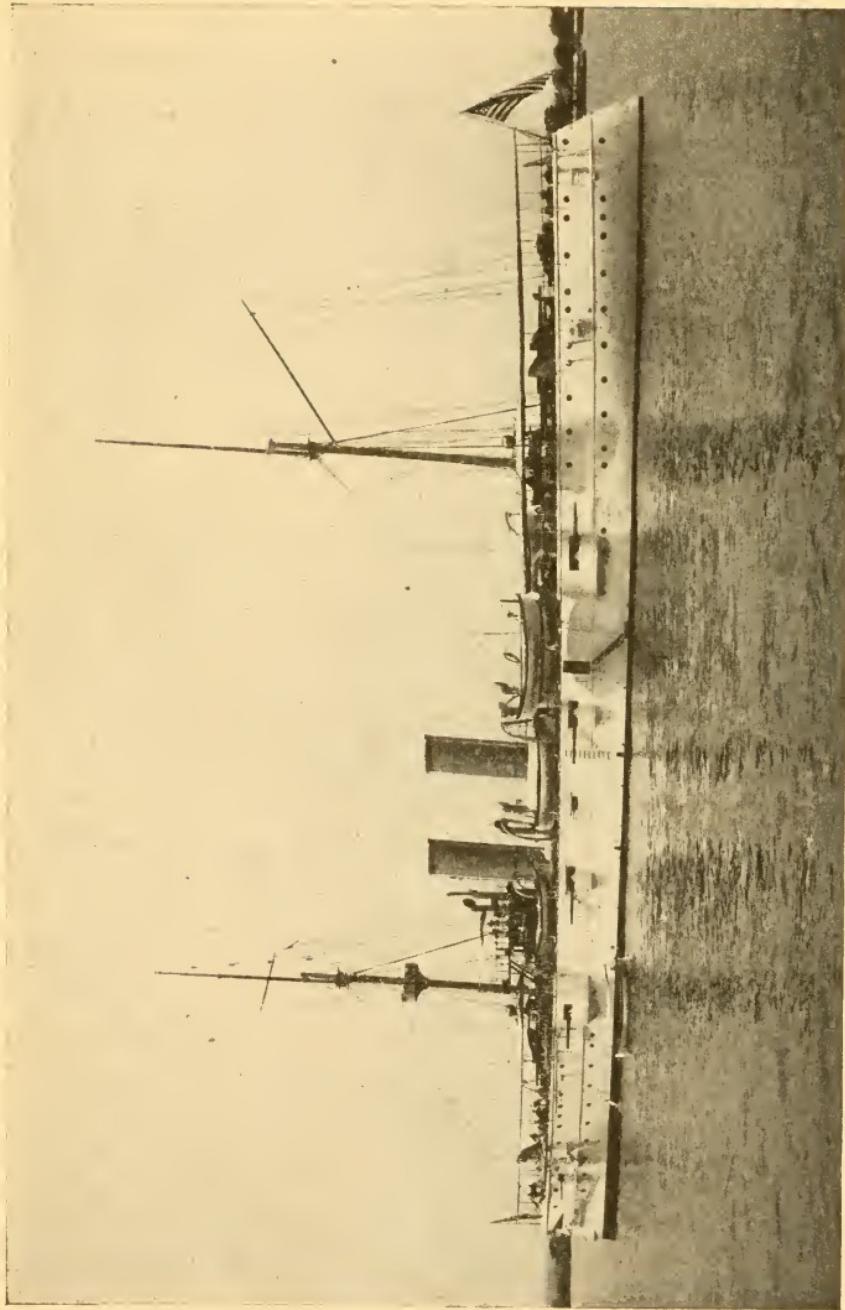
Three men were seen to run from some bushes on the northern bank of the river as soon as the explosion occurred. They were the men who had set off the mine. One of them was shot dead and the others were captured. The night before the fleet reached Deep Bottom, knowing that the Northern sailors were scouring the southern bank of the stream for mines, the three men had taken the wires across to the other bank, where they could work without being seen. During the months of May and June large numbers of floating torpedoes were sent down the James River to destroy the Northern ships, but they were all caught before they reached the vessels.

A small fleet of wooden vessels started up the Roanoke River, in North Carolina, on December 9, 1864, to go to a place called Rainbow Bluff. It was known that there were torpedoes in the river, and the vessels moved with great caution. The fleet had not gone far, however, before one of the gunboats, the Otsego, a double-ender, was blown up and several of her crew killed. The other vessels of the fleet hurried to the assistance of the Otsego, and just as one of them, called the Bazeley, reached the Otsego's side, she was also blown up and destroyed. The expedition at once retired.

On January 15, 1865, there occurred one of the

great disasters to the navy through the explosion of a war ship by a torpedo. The monitor Patapsco, which had been on duty off Charleston, S. C., for a long time, and which had taken part in the heavy fighting there, was passing between Forts Sumter and Moultrie on picket duty. A muffled roar was heard, the ship lurched heavily, and began to sink. She went down almost immediately. Every one on board who was not on deck or near the companion ways to the decks was lost. Only forty-three officers and men were saved, and sixty-two officers and men were killed or drowned. Every care had been taken against such an accident. Small boats had searched the very place where the Patapsco was sunk, and several large vessels had passed over the spot. The Southern officers in Charleston had watched the course that the Patapsco and other vessels took in their nightly picket duty, and in the darkness of the night before the explosion had placed a torpedo in the path that the Patapsco would take. The torpedo was set off by electricity the moment the Patapsco was over it.

After Fort Fisher had been taken, Admiral Porter's fleet went up the Cape Fear River to help capture Wilmington, N. C. The river was full of torpedoes, but good fortune followed the work of Porter's men in finding them and exploding them. Just before the vessels of the fleet reached Wilmington more than two hundred floating torpedoes were sent down the



United States cruiser Raleigh, which took part in the naval battle at Manila bay.

river against the vessels. Picket boats in advance of the fleet sent up a signal, and all the small boats of the ships were sent out in a hurry to gather up the torpedoes as they came down. It was dangerous work. Most of the torpedoes were guided clear of the vessels and were exploded by shooting into them. One of the small boats engaged in the work was destroyed and four men were killed and wounded. Fish nets were spread across the river the next day, and there was no more trouble from the floating torpedoes.

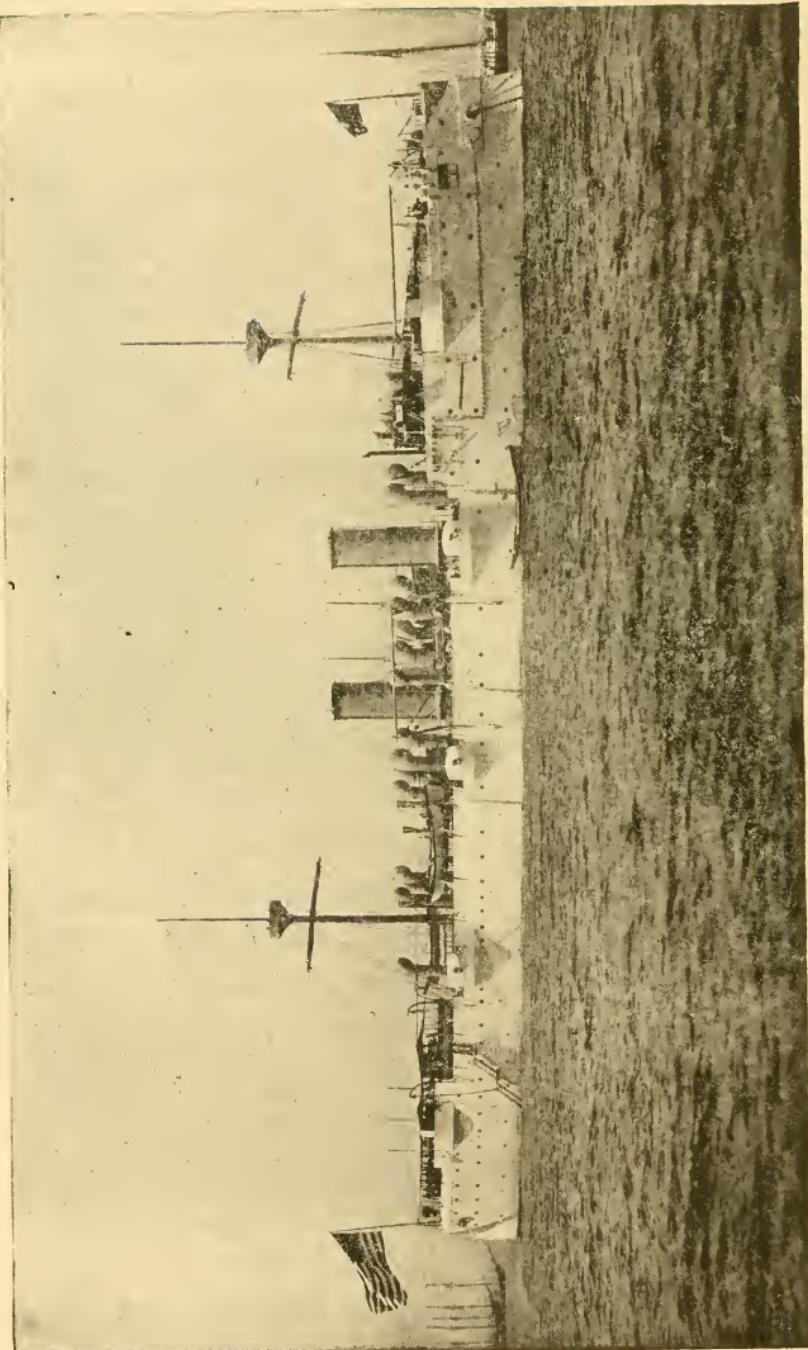
On March 1, 1865, Admiral Dahlgren set out early in the morning with his flagship, the *Harvest Moon*, from Georgetown, S. C., to go to Charleston harbor. He had not gone more than three miles below the city when an explosion like that of the bursting of a boiler was heard. There was great confusion at once, and in a few moments the *Harvest Moon* was on the bottom. Only one life was lost in this disaster.

Although the war was nearly over, the most serious losses to the navy through torpedoes, so far as the number of vessels was concerned, were yet to occur. Within two weeks, in the harbor of Mobile, no less than five war ships, two of which were double-turreted monitors, and one launch were destroyed. The first of these vessels to be lost was the monitor *Milwaukee*. With the monitor *Winnebago* she had been up Dog River on March 28, 1865, to shell a place called Spanish Fort. On the way back to the fleet in the harbor

a torpedo was blown up under the Milwaukee, and the stern of the monitor sank in three minutes. The bow remained above the water for nearly an hour and all on board escaped. On the next day the water was rough in the bay, and the monitor Winnebago dragged her anchor. She was in danger of collision with the monitor Osage, and the Osage, to avoid an accident, raised her anchor and started for a new berth. She had just reached a new anchorage when she struck a torpedo and sank almost at once. None of the crew was drowned, but five were killed and eleven wounded by the explosion.

Two days after this the Northern vessel Rodolph was sent toward the sunken monitor Milwaukee with some machinery that was to be used in trying to raise that vessel. The Rodolph was passing between the monitors Chickasaw and Winnebago when she was blown up by a torpedo that made a hole in the bottom underneath the bow ten feet in diameter. In a few minutes the Rodolph was on the bottom of the harbor. Four men were killed and eleven wounded. On April 14th, twelve days later, the small gunboat Scioto, while going from one vessel of the fleet to another, ran against a torpedo which was below the surface of the water. The torpedo exploded, and the bottom of the vessel was torn out for several feet. Four men were killed and six were wounded.

The tugboats Ida and Althea, with a launch of the



United States cruiser Baltimore.

Cincinnati, were engaged during the first part of April, 1865, with other small vessels in searching the harbor of Mobile for these torpedoes, which were doing great damage to the fleet. On April 12th the Althea, while dragging the channel with a chain attached to some spars, struck a torpedo and went down at once, two men being killed and two wounded. The next day the tugboat Ida, while engaged in similar work, also ran afoul of a torpedo. In the explosion the boilers of the Ida were blown up and she went down. The launch of the Cincinnati was destroyed on the same day while hunting for torpedoes.

Of course the most serious disaster to the Northern fleet in the work in and around Mobile Bay was the loss of the monitor Tecumseh when the fleet was passing Fort Morgan during the great battle there. An account of this disaster was given in the chapter describing this fight. After Fort Morgan had surrendered, men from the Northern fleet were sent to remove the line of torpedoes which had been stretched across the mouth of the harbor, and one of which had sunk the Tecumseh. While engaged in this work five men were killed and eleven wounded by the explosion of a torpedo which was not handled with proper care.

The war was now over, practically, and with the loss of so many vessels in Mobile Bay in the latter part of March and the first part of April, 1865, torpedo

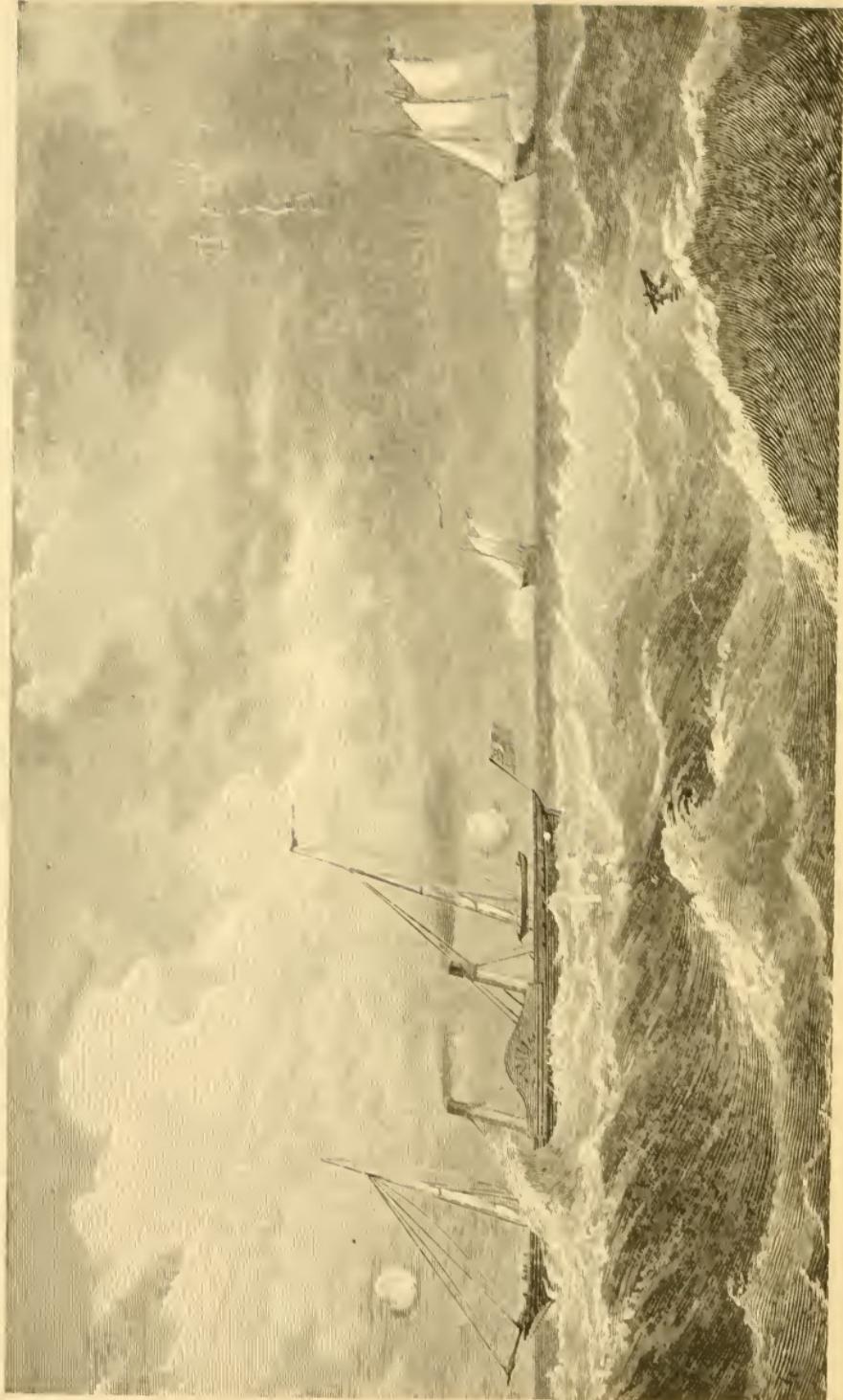
warfare really ended. It showed that in time of war a weak nation that is attacked must rely on torpedoes for safety from the navy of an enemy. It also showed that in the future torpedoes were to have a prominent part in warfare. Still many of the officers of the navy did not like them. Among these officers was the great Farragut, who once said in a report to the Secretary of the Navy that he had always thought the use of torpedoes was unworthy of a great nation, and that he had adopted them only because he was compelled to do so. That same reason accounts largely for their use the world over for protecting harbors at the present day.

CHAPTER XII.

THE GREAT BLOCKADE—ALABAMA AND KEARSARGE FIGHT.

SOME of the most exciting events of the civil war in which the navy took part occurred as the result of the great blockade of the south Atlantic and Gulf coasts. It was on April 19, 1861, that President Lincoln proclaimed a blockade of the Atlantic, from South Carolina to the lower end of Florida. At that time the North had only three steamers which it could use in blockading this coast. On April 30th, the States of Virginia and North Carolina having left the Union, President Lincoln extended the blockade northward from South Carolina to the Chesapeake Bay. It is a rule in war that if a blockade is set up it must really do the work of a blockade, or other nations are not bound to respect it. It was a great task that the President set for the navy to do. Nothing like it had ever been known.

The distance along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts from the Chesapeake Bay to the northern boundary of Mexico was 3,549 miles. If the outlines of

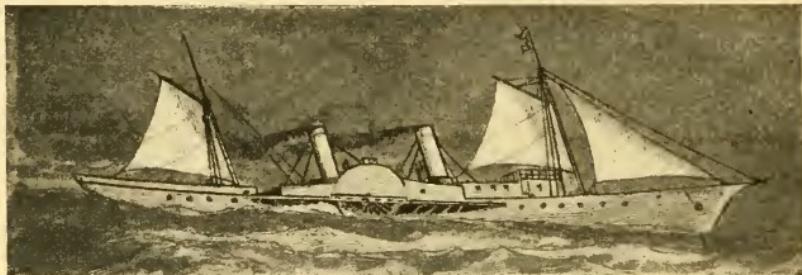


Chasing a blockade runner.

the bays and sounds and harbors were followed, the distance was 6,789 miles. There were 185 river and harbor openings to be watched. Month by month the force of vessels engaged in this work increased, until at the end of the war there were more than six hundred of them on blockade duty. Altogether 1,504 prizes were taken by the vessels in this work during the war. Of these 1,504, 210 were steamers. More than 350 of the prizes were burned or sunk, and of this number 85 were steamers. The value of the vessels destroyed by the blockading fleet was about \$32,000,000.

Cut off from traffic at sea, and with no supplies except those of the farm for its own use, the South had to depend on vessels which were known as blockade runners in order to sell its cotton in Europe and to receive in return necessities, such as food, medicines, iron, and articles of manufacture that it did not possess. It was dangerous and exciting work to run the blockade, and during the years 1863-'64 it was very profitable for those engaged in it. The blockade runners started usually from St. Thomas, Havana, Nassau, or Bermuda. All of these places were within less than one thousand miles of the Southern ports, and it is on record that in the month of June, 1863, no less than ninety-one sailing vessels left the port of Nassau alone for various rivers and harbors in the South. About one in four of the blockade

runners was sure to be caught. At first these vessels were mostly sailing craft. In 1863, however, special steamers that were built in England began to engage in the trade. They were long and low, and were usually painted grey. The smokestacks could be lowered, and the masts were really thin poles. Hard coal was burned in the furnaces, so as to make little smoke, and steam was discharged under water. Most of these vessels could go at the rate of seventeen knots an hour. They approached the coast at night, and lights, placed



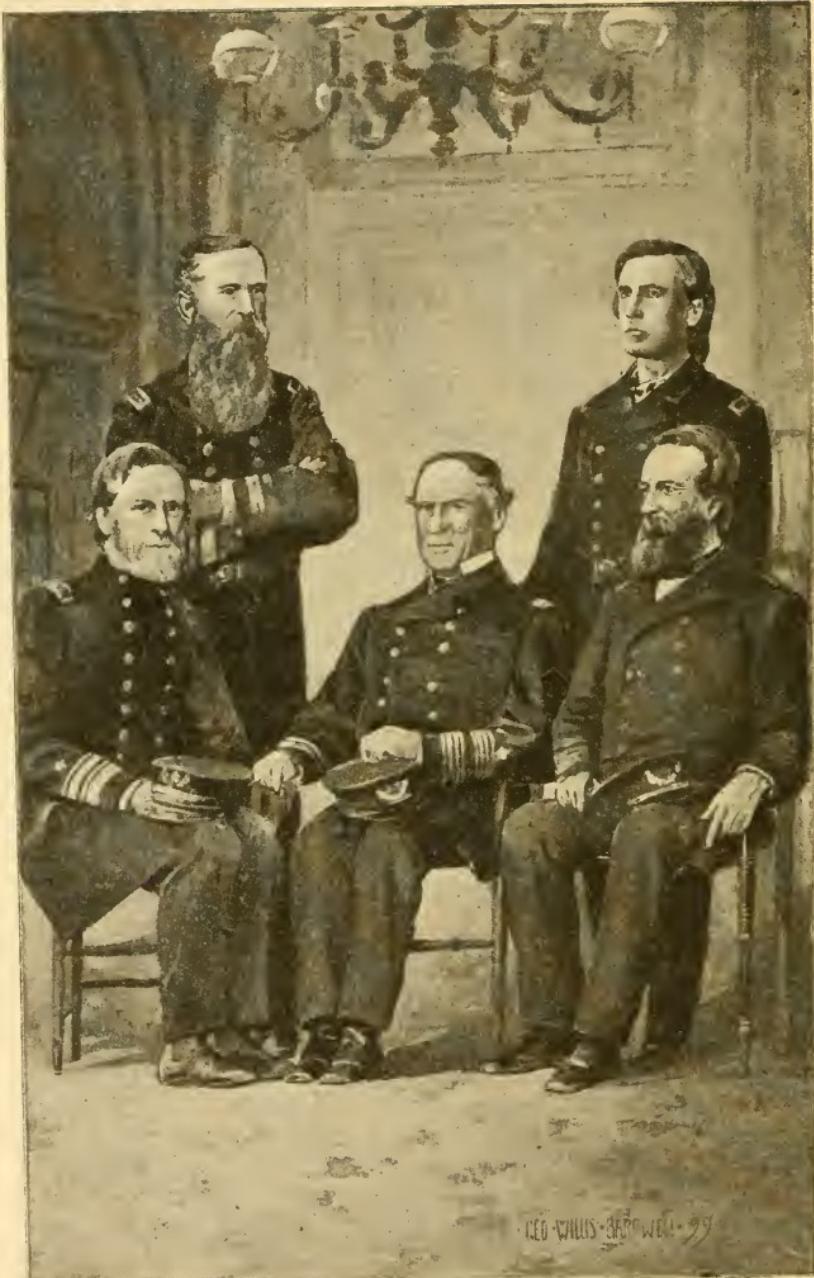
Typical blockade runner.

in huts and other buildings, were used as ranges for them to creep into ports.

Some of these blockade runners were very bold. While the battle of Fort Fisher was going on, one of them joined the Northern fleet. She put some soft coal in her furnaces, and black smoke poured out of her funnels. The men in Porter's fleet thought she was one of their own ships and paid no attention to her. When no one was looking she sailed right into the Cape Fear River through the thick smoke of the

battle and passed up to Wilmington safely. While Farragut was preparing to enter Mobile Bay one of these runners came up, and, noticing the preparations that were going on for battle, sailed through Farragut's fleet and disappeared inside the harbor. They were up to all sorts of tricks, and did not hesitate to take all kinds of chances. They displayed false lights and false flags, always gave a wrong name when they were hailed and asked who they were, and when they were captured always threw overboard papers and other documents that would reveal their real nature.

Two or three trips would pay for the cost of any vessel, and some of these runners stole into port as many as twenty-five times. Before the war ended a pound of tea was worth two or three hundred dollars in Southern money in Wilmington, N. C., and other supplies were enormously expensive. Great Britain depended almost entirely upon the South for the cotton for its mills, and there was great distress in England because the mills were shut down. No less than \$10,000,000 was spent in England to keep people who had no work because of the war from starving. By bringing in food from English and other ports, and by taking out cotton for English mills, the profits of the blockade runners were very high. One of them is known to have made more than \$90,000 in one month. The wages of the captain was usually \$5,000 a month. From



Commodore Foote.
Commodore Worden.

Admiral Farragut. Lieutenant Cushing.
Commodore Porter.

Heroes of the War of the Rebellion.

March 1, 1864, to January 1, 1865, for instance, the cotton that was shipped out of the South by these runners amounted in value to more than \$5,000,000 in gold. It is on record that in two months and a little more, in the latter part of 1864, more than 8,000,000 pounds of meat, 1,500,000 pounds of lead, nearly 2,000,000 pounds of saltpeter, nearly 550,000 pairs of shoes, more than 300,000 pairs of blankets, about 500,000 pounds of coffee, nearly 70,000 rifles, and nearly 2,700 packages of medicine were smuggled into the ports of Wilmington and Charleston alone. There were hundreds of vessels engaged in this work.

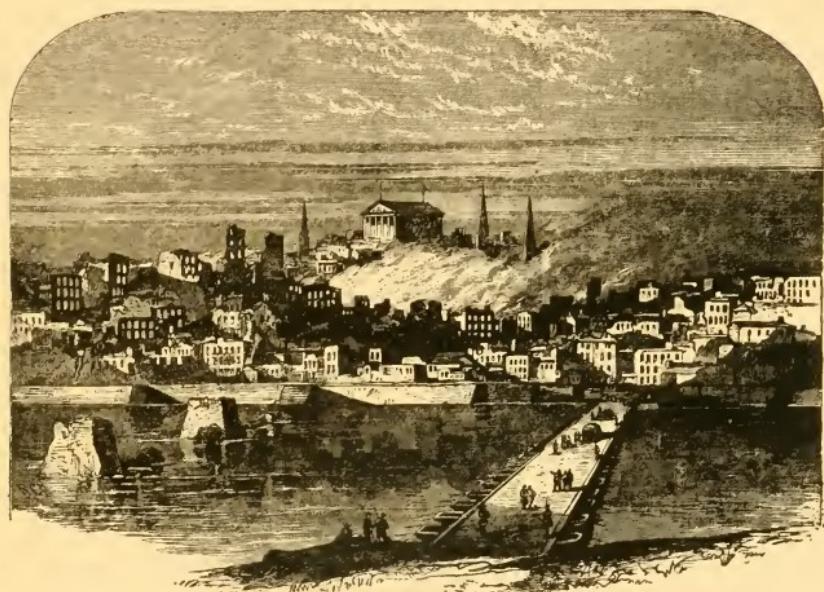
Another class of vessels that appeared upon the seas as the result of the blockade was what was known as privateers. These were vessels whose work it was to capture vessels of the North and bring them into port as prizes. Privateers were so called because they were owned by private persons, but were sent out by the South, as they had been sent out by the United States in 1812, to destroy the commerce of the enemy. The first of these vessels permitted to sail by the South was the small pilot boat Savannah, which ran out from Charleston on June 2, 1861. She captured a prize off the coast of South Carolina in a day or two, and was captured herself soon afterward when she chased the Northern man-of-war Perry, thinking that the Perry was a merchant vessel. The crew of the Savannah was taken to New York and put in prison, and for a time

there was talk of treating them as pirates and of hanging them, but it was decided finally to treat them as prisoners of war, when it became known that the South would hang prisoners it held if the men captured on privateers were hanged.

One of the most interesting of the Southern privateers was the Jefferson Davis. She was a fine clipper ship, and captured nearly a dozen merchant vessels before she was wrecked on the coast of Florida while trying to enter the St. John's River. One of the vessels captured by the Jefferson Davis was the schooner S. J. Waring, bound from New York to Montevideo. The Waring was captured about a hundred and fifty miles from Sandy Hook. On board the Waring was a negro cook named William Tillman, who had escaped from slavery. He knew that if the Waring was taken to a Southern port he would become a slave again. Five men from the Davis had been placed upon the Waring as a prize crew. The negro cook waited until the vessel was within fifty miles of Charleston, when he stole to the captain's cabin at night and killed three of the prize crew. Then he took charge of the Waring, and by following the coast brought the vessel in safety back to New York.

There were half a dozen other privateers that set out from Charleston, but the one that had the most exciting and unfortunate experience was the Petrel. She was so anxious to get a prize that almost as soon

as she got to sea she went on a long chase for the Northern frigate St. Lawrence. The men on the Petrel were so unused to the work that they did not



The city of Richmond in flames, seen from the James River.

know, even when they were at close range, that the St. Lawrence was a war ship. The St. Lawrence allowed the Petrel to come very near, and to fire two guns across her bow as a signal to stop. The St. Lawrence kept right on, and finally the Petrel fired a shot straight at her. At once the St. Lawrence swung around and fired three large guns at the Petrel. The privateer sank, and four men were drowned. The St. Lawrence saved the rest of the crew.

The desire of the North to capture Southern priva-

teers and men on these vessels soon extended to a plan to capture agents of the South who might be leaving the country for Europe. It was this that led to what is known as the "Trent affair." The South was sending two of its best-known citizens—James Mason, of Virginia, a former United States Senator, and John Slidell, of Louisiana, former United States minister to Mexico—to Europe with their secretaries to try to induce England and France to recognize the South as a republic. They ran out of Charleston harbor on October 12, 1861, on a blockade runner, and in a few days reached Havana. There they engaged passage for England on the British steamer Trent. Captain Charles Wilkes, who was off the port of Cienfuegos, Cuba, with the United States cruiser San Jacinto, heard that Messrs. Mason and Slidell were in Havana, and were about to sail on the Trent. He stopped the Trent in the old Bahama Channel while on the way to St. Thomas on November 8, 1861. He sent a boat to the Trent and took Messrs. Mason, Sildell, and their secretaries prisoners, and then sailed for Boston. When the news became known throughout the North of the arrival of the San Jacinto with her prisoners there was great rejoicing, and even the Secretary of the Navy sent a telegram of congratulation to Captain Wilkes. The North lost its head completely for a time. The United States had gone to war with England in 1812 for almost

the same reason as the capture of Messrs. Mason and Slidell.

When the news reached England of what Captain Wilkes had done, there was a great outburst of public rage. England demanded at once that the prisoners should be released. There was a prospect of war with England if this was not done. President Lincoln ordered the men to be set at liberty. The United States was clearly in the wrong in this matter. It resulted, really, in the admission by Great Britain—something that country had never admitted before—when she declared that it was wrong to take men by force from ships flying the flag of another country, that the United States was right in the War of 1812.

Another kind of boats that the South used to a great extent in the war was known as commerce destroyers. These boats were really war ships, and they went up and down the high seas capturing merchant vessels which carried the United States flag. They did great damage to American shipping, and practically drove it from the ocean. The first of these vessels to attract attention was the Sumter. She stole out of the Mississippi River on June 18, 1861, and although she was chased by a Northern war ship blockading one of the mouths of the Mississippi, she escaped and went cruising for two months in the West Indies. In one week she took eight prizes. She finally put in to St. Pierre, Martinique, for coal and supplies on

November 9th of that year. The Northern war ship Iroquois arrived there five days later. The Iroquois waited outside the harbor for the Sumter to come out. On the night of November 23d Captain Semmes, of the Sumter, decided to make a dash for the ocean. Captain Palmer, of the Iroquois, received a signal from the shore that the Sumter had started and was going out on the southern side of the wide harbor. Captain Semmes saw the signal, and after he had run two miles on the southern side, suddenly turned, and in the darkness and in a heavy shower ran over to the northern side and escaped with ease. He went straight across the Atlantic, taking three prizes on his way, and arrived at Cadiz, Spain. Then he went to Gibraltar, where three Northern war ships found him. He could not escape this time, and sold his boat. In all he had taken eighteen prizes.

The South had no more boats that it could use in this work, and began to buy or build vessels in England for this purpose. These vessels were fitted out as merchantmen, and were then taken to sea and were made into war ships by placing cannon and ammunition and Southern crews on board of them. The first of these cruisers was the Florida, built in Liverpool. She was taken to the Bahama Islands as a merchantman and there made into a war ship. The captain of the Florida sailed for Cuba, and then, his crew being reduced to three available men because of

yellow fever on board, he started for Mobile. He came within sight of the port on September 4, 1862. Two Northern vessels were blockading the bay. With only one man on deck to steer, and the captain himself sick and sitting in a chair, the Florida raised the British flag and steered straight for the entrance. The captains of the Northern vessels thought she was an English war ship and hailed her. No reply was given, and the Northern vessel Oneida, after firing across the bow of the Florida three times, fired a broadside at her, but did not hit her. The Florida could go fourteen knots an hour and the Oneida could go only seven, and therefore the Florida's captain, the fearless John N. Maffitt, sailed into Mobile safely.

On January 16, 1863, Maffitt ran through the Northern blockading squadron at Mobile again and escaped to sea. He went down toward Brazil, and in five months took fourteen prizes. One of the prizes, named the Clarence, he put in charge of Lieutenant C. W. Read. That vessel went off cruising by herself, and soon captured five prizes. The fifth of these prizes was a vessel called the Tacony. Read burned the Clarence, and took the Tacony for his vessel. Two weeks later he caught another vessel called the Archer. He at once burned the Tacony and used the Archer as his war ship. Then he did a bold thing. He ran into the harbor of Portland, Me., seized the revenue cutter Caleb Cushing, and stole out to sea again with

her. He was captured the next day by several steamers that went out to search for him, and Read's career in destroying vessels on the high seas was over.

The Florida, in the meantime, had sailed for France, where she remained six months. She then



Southern steamer Florida, sunk at Hampton Roads.

went to Bahia, Brazil, where she was found by the Northern sloop of war Wachusett. Although it is against the law of nations for one war ship to fight another in a neutral port, Captain Collins, of the Wachusett, was afraid that the Florida would escape, and he attacked the Florida in the harbor and captured her. He did a great wrong, and later he was ordered to take the vessel back to Bahia and leave her there. She sank, however, just as Collins was about to start from Hampton Roads with his prize. Brazil had allowed the Southern cruiser Alabama to use her ports in which to hide and from which she would steal

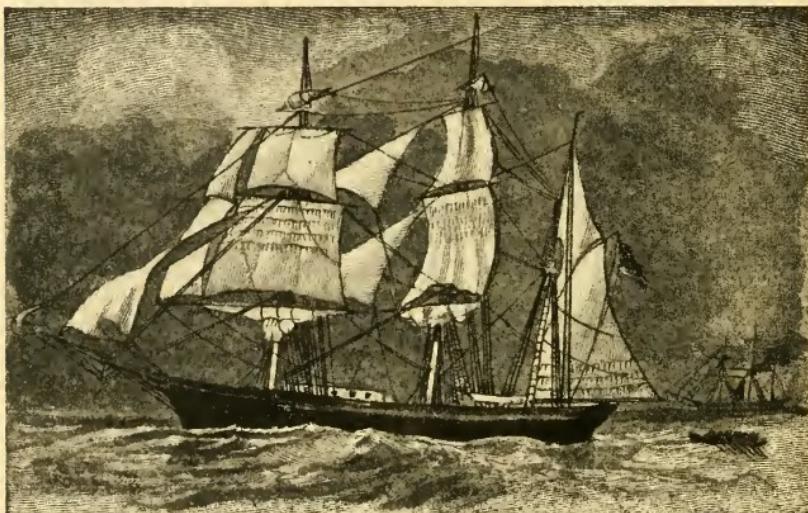
out to capture Northern vessels, but of course that did not excuse Collins's act.

Another of these commerce destroyers that was built in England was the Rappahannock. She went from England to France, but the French, finding out what she really was, never allowed her to leave that country. Still another was the Georgia, which cruised in the Atlantic for a year, but which took only eight prizes in that time. She returned to England and was sold to a merchant. While on a peaceful cruise afterward she was captured by the Northern war ship Niagara, and was held as a lawful prize.

The cruiser Shenandoah was another vessel of this class that had a famous career. She sailed from England in October, 1864, and after being made into a war ship near the Madeira Islands, took a few prizes in the Atlantic and then sailed to Melbourne, Australia. She received a cargo of coal there, and enlisted forty-two men in her crew, and then sailed north straight to the Behring Sea, where there was a large fleet of Northern whalers. Altogether, she captured thirty-six prizes, and kept at her work until June 28, 1865, some time after the war ended. The news of the close of the war did not reach the vessel until that time. The Shenandoah then returned to Liverpool, where she was given up to the English authorities.

The most famous of all the commerce destroyers that the South sent out was the Alabama, under com-

mand of Captain Semmes, who was in charge of the Sumter during that vessel's career. It was the Alabama which fought the famous battle with the Kearsarge off the harbor of Cherbourg, France, the only sea fight of the civil war between vessels nearly evenly

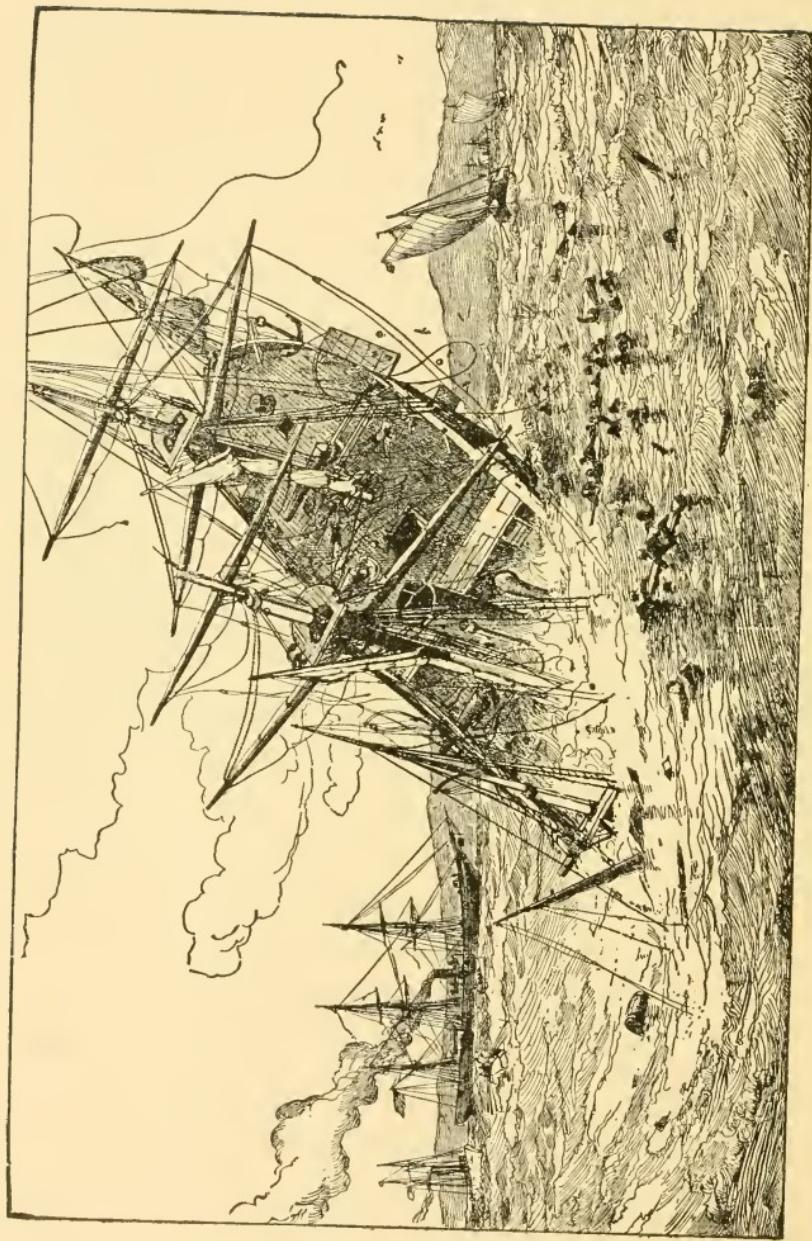


Northern merchantman held up by the Southern commerce
destroyer Alabama.

matched. The Alabama left England in July, 1862, as a merchant vessel, but was made into a war ship in the Bahamas in August, and at once started out to find Northern ships. Captain Semmes was the most successful of all the captains engaged in this work. He would cruise in one region only about two months at a time and then would go far away, so that when news reached the North about him and a vessel would be sent to find him, he would be nowhere near the

place where he was expected to be. He first went to the West Indies, where after taking some prizes he learned that the Southern forces at Galveston, Texas, needed some help. He arrived there on January 11, 1863, a short time after the Northern vessels in that port had been destroyed or put to flight, and just after several more Northern vessels had been sent there to blockade the port once more. One of the lookouts on the Northern vessel Brooklyn saw what he thought was a bark about twelve miles off on the morning of January 11th. The Northern vessel Hatteras, which had been a Delaware River steamer, was sent out to capture the bark. The bark was really the Alabama. Semmes allowed the Hatteras to chase him for twenty miles. The captain of the Hatteras finally overtook him and asked the name of his ship. Semmes said it was the English war ship Petrel, and while the captain of the Hatteras was sending a small boat over to the Alabama, the latter swung around and opened fire on the Hatteras and sank her in a few minutes. Semmes saved the crew of the Hatteras and took them away with him to Jamaica. The other Northern vessels, hearing the firing at sea, went out to find the Hatteras, but she was gone. After cruising all night they finally discovered her masts sticking out of the water.

Semmes then went cruising off the northern coast of Brazil for two months, where he took many prizes, and then he sailed for the Cape of Good Hope. The



The last of the *Alabama*.

people there were very cordial to him, and made his stay in that region pleasant. From there he went out in the Indian Ocean, and took several prizes in the East Indies. He went clear to the China Sea, and then came back to the Cape of Good Hope, and finally arrived at Cherbourg, France, on June 11, 1864. During his long cruise Semmes took sixty-nine prizes, fifty-three of which he destroyed. He always took the flags of the vessels he captured and placed them in a big bag as trophies. That bag was lost when the Alabama was sunk by the Kearsarge on June 19, 1864.

The Kearsarge was lying off the town of Flushing, Holland, on Sunday, June 12, 1864, when her captain, John A. Winslow, received a Paris telegram saying that the Alabama had arrived at Cherbourg. Winslow at once started for Cherbourg, and lay off the harbor waiting for the Alabama to come out. Semmes had never fought a war ship in his cruising, and it was said that he would not do so at that time, but would give up his ship to France. But Semmes had true American bravery, and he let it be known that he intended to fight when he got ready. Although the Kearsarge was only fifteen tons larger than the Alabama, she had a crew of 163 men to the Alabama's 149. She could throw 366 pounds of metal from her seven guns to the 328 pounds of the Alabama's eight guns. Her powder was in good condi-

tion, while that of the Alabama was not, because it had been on board for nearly two years. Her crew was eager to fight, while the crew of the Alabama had been shipped more for the purpose of capturing prizes than of fighting.

The advantage, therefore, although the ships were of about the same size, was with the Kearsarge. Winslow, of the Kearsarge, about a year before had taken anchor chains and had strung them alongside his vessel at the water line. Then he planked them over and painted the wood so that the crude armor that the anchor chains made did not show. This method of using anchor chains had been tried before during the war, but Semmes said that if he had known the Kearsarge was so protected he would not have fought her as an equal. Only two shots, however, hit the armor, and so the protection really amounted to very little.

Day after day the Kearsarge sailed up and down off the harbor of Cherbourg, waiting for the Alabama. Sunday morning, June 19th, was beautiful with sunshine, and the Kearsarge was made snug and clean and her brass work was polished highly before the hour for religious services had come. It was exactly at 10.20 o'clock, when the ship's bell was tolling for church, that the Alabama was seen coming out of the harbor. Captain Winslow stood with his prayer book in hand, and gave orders to clear for action. A French war ship escorted the Alabama three miles out

of the harbor, so as to be sure that the fighting would take place on the ocean beyond the limit of French waters. An English yacht called the Deerhound also came out to see the fight.

Winslow took the Kearsarge four miles farther out to sea and then turned around and waited for the Alabama. The Alabama began firing when she was eighteen hundred yards from the Kearsarge. She fired three broadsides before Captain Winslow replied. The vessels were then only nine hundred yards apart. Winslow sent word to his gunners to make every shot count. The two vessels began swinging about in a circle. Seven times they made a complete turn. The Alabama fired three hundred and seventy shots, of which only twenty-eight hit the Kearsarge. The Kearsarge fired only one hundred and seventy-three shots, nearly all of which struck the Alabama. It was the old story over again of good shooting. At noon Semmes saw that the Alabama was about to sink and hauled down his flag. While the Kearsarge's boats were hurrying to rescue those of the Alabama's crew that were alive, the vessel lurched and sank, her bow being lifted high out of the water as she went down. The yacht Deerhound rescued forty-two men, including Semmes, and took them to England. Between thirty and forty men of the Alabama were killed or drowned; the Kearsarge had three men wounded, one of whom died.

Thus ended one of the greatest duels on the high

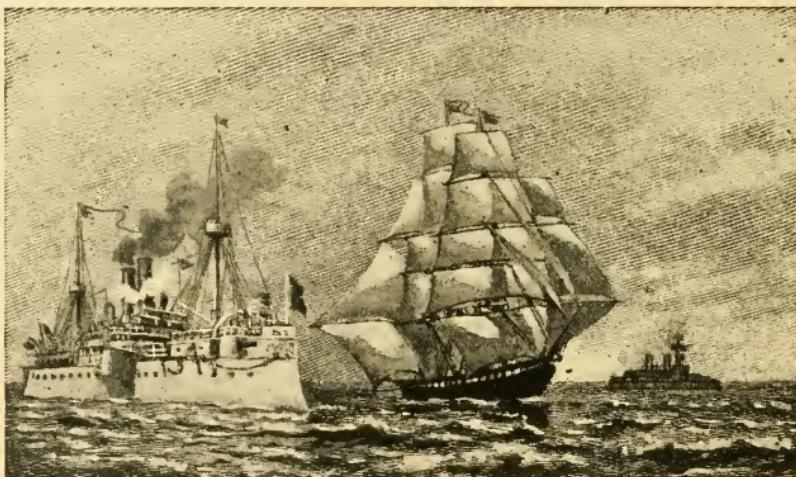
seas in history. The people of the North, after that, always had a deep affection for the Kearsarge, and it is probable that she would always have been preserved in the navy. Unfortunately, she was wrecked, on February 2, 1894, on Roncador Reef, off the coast of Nicaragua, while on a trip to Central America. The vessel could not be saved, and little by little went to pieces. It was always the custom on board the Kearsarge to celebrate June 19th as a special holiday. On these occasions the crew always met in a body and sang a song known as the Kearsarge Song. That song was sung for the last time on the ship's holiday, June 19, 1893.

CHAPTER XIII.

DEWEY'S VICTORY AT MANILA.

WHEN the civil war ended the United States had so many war ships that, as one looked at the list, it seemed as if this country was one of the great naval powers in the world; but when the Government had sold the boats that were no longer useful, the navy was found to be small. For more than fifteen years no new boats were built, and by 1880 the navy came to be known as something of a laughingstock. There were splendid men in it, but the vessels were almost useless. In 1883, however, the United States made a new start in naval affairs, and four modern war ships were launched. Year by year new ships were added, although it was hard work to get the money for them from Congress. After a time the country began to build battle ships. By the year 1894 the United States was the fifth or sixth naval power in the world, and it began to be known that our ships, even if they were few in number, were the best of the kind in the world. The other nations began to respect the United States navy once more.

It was not until 1898, when the war with Spain came, that the navy was called upon once more to show its valor in fighting. In 1873 the United States came very near having a war with Spain. In 1888 there was danger of trouble with Germany over the Samoan Islands, and Commander Richard P. Leary,



The old and the new, showing the type of war-ship employed during the first part of the Civil War with that now in use. The modern vessel, the cruiser Maine ; the old type, the Constitution.

of the United States navy, did what few commanders of the navy have done or have ever had a chance to do. He cleared his ship, the Adams, for action, and ran in between the German war ship Adler and the shore, just as the Adler was about to fire on some natives who were on the property of a United States citizen. Had the German ship fired a single gun that day Leary

would have fired into her, and war with Germany might have followed. Leary could not cable home, and he stood up bravely and alone for his country's interests. He was thanked in person by the President, the Secretary of State, and the Secretary of the Navy when he returned from Samoa, but no official notice was ever taken of his bold stand for his country. Not even a scrap of paper was given to Leary to show that his acts were approved. His native State, Maryland, however, presented him with a gold watch, and the citizens of the United States, through the newspapers, declared Leary to be one of the heroes of the navy, and his reward will be their approval in history.

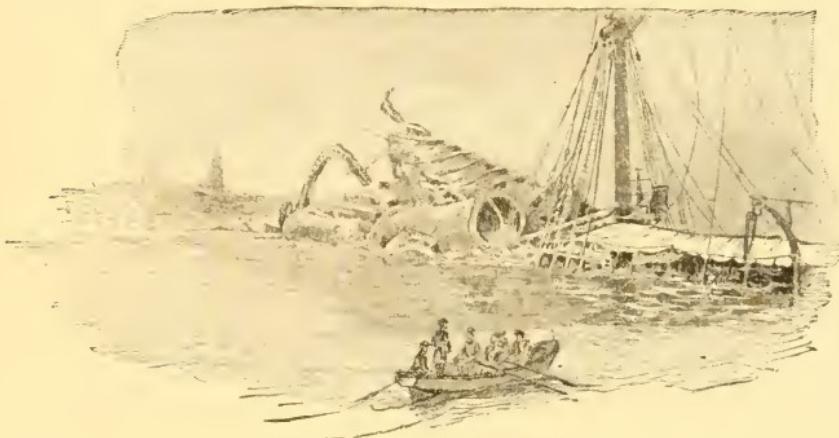
In 1894 there was a revolution in Brazil. The men of the Brazilian navy were the rebels. They refused to allow American vessels to enter the harbor of Rio de Janeiro. The United States sent a squadron of war ships down there, and on January 30, 1894, these ships cleared for action to fight the Brazilian rebels. The Brazilians yielded, however, and allowed the United States war ships to take American vessels up the harbor. Three years before this there was danger of war between the United States and Chili, because some of the crew of the cruiser Baltimore were assaulted in the streets of Valparaiso, but that cloud soon passed away, and it was not until the Cuban revolution came that there was prospect that

the United States navy would be used in war once more.

Spain found that she could not conquer the Cubans by war, and the cruel Captain-General Weyler began to try to starve all those who were not fighting in the field. He made the old and young, the sick and infirm, the women and children, go into the cities, where little by little they were starved. The people of the United States were enraged. Citizens of the United States in Havana and other Cuban cities were afraid for their lives and property. Spain recalled Weyler, but kept up the starvation, and finally the United States sent the battle ship Maine to Havana to protect its own citizens in case of trouble. The Maine was anchored over a secret mine or torpedo of some kind, and on the night of February 15, 1898, some one in control of the wires leading to the mine turned on the electricity and blew up the splendid battle ship. More than two hundred and sixty lives were lost on board. A great wave of anger passed over the United States, and while it could not be proved at that time that the Spaniards blew up the ship, Congress decided that Spain must quit Cuba forever, and this brought on war between that country and the United States.

The war began on April 21st. Before that time the United States had been gathering its fleet in the Atlantic at Key West, and its fleet in the Pacific at Hong Kong, the English possession in China. The

Navy Department made swift and sure preparation for war. When it came the ships were ready to fight. A blockade was put in force at once off Havana, and the United States vessels began to capture prizes.



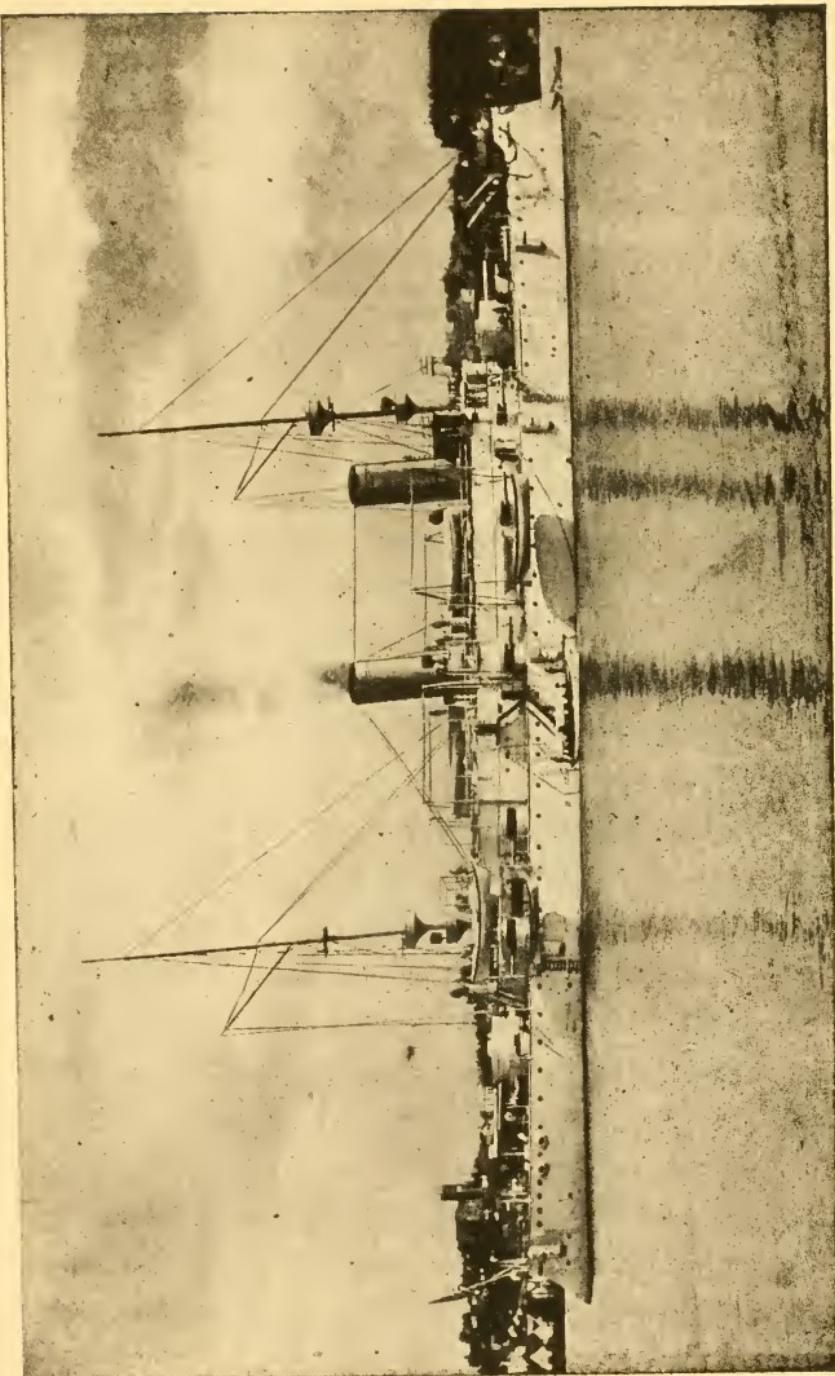
The wreck of the Maine.

The Pacific squadron was in command of Commodore George Dewey. He had made every preparation for war, and soon orders came for him to go to Manila, in the Philippines, Spain's great island possessions in the Pacific, to fight a Spanish fleet. England notified him that he must leave Hong Kong, and he set out with his fleet for Mirs Bay, about twenty miles away. His orders were "to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet in the Philippines." He had seven war ships with him and two supply boats. The largest of the war ships was the Olympia, the flagship, a fine, new armored cruiser. The other vessels of his fleet were the Baltimore, Boston, Raleigh, Concord, Petrel,

and McCulloch. The McCulloch was really a revenue cutter. The sailors on English war ships cheered the fleet as it left Hong Kong, and shouted that the United States vessels would surely win. Opposed to Dewey was the Spanish fleet of eleven cruisers and gunboats under the command of Admiral Montojo. Most of these vessels were old and of wood. Dewey's fleet was stronger, but the Spaniards had the help of splendidly armed forts in Manila Bay, where the fight took place, and really were more than a match in guns for the Americans.

Dewey had much at stake. He was nearly eight thousand miles away from his nearest home port. If he was beaten, or only partly beaten, there was no place for him to go after the fight. He could not get coal to start away, and of course could not obtain food. He simply had to win, or die in the attempt. No such work was ever put upon a naval officer in command of a fleet. He knew what failure meant, and started out from Mirs Bay on April 27, bound to win a victory. On April 30th he approached the Philippine Islands. Not far from Manila Bay is Subig Bay. Dewey sent the Concord and Boston ahead to see if the Spanish fleet was there. He hurried the Baltimore after the Boston and Concord, and found that the enemy was not in the bay. He then called all his captains on the flagship and gave orders for the work the next day. That night his fleet arrived just before

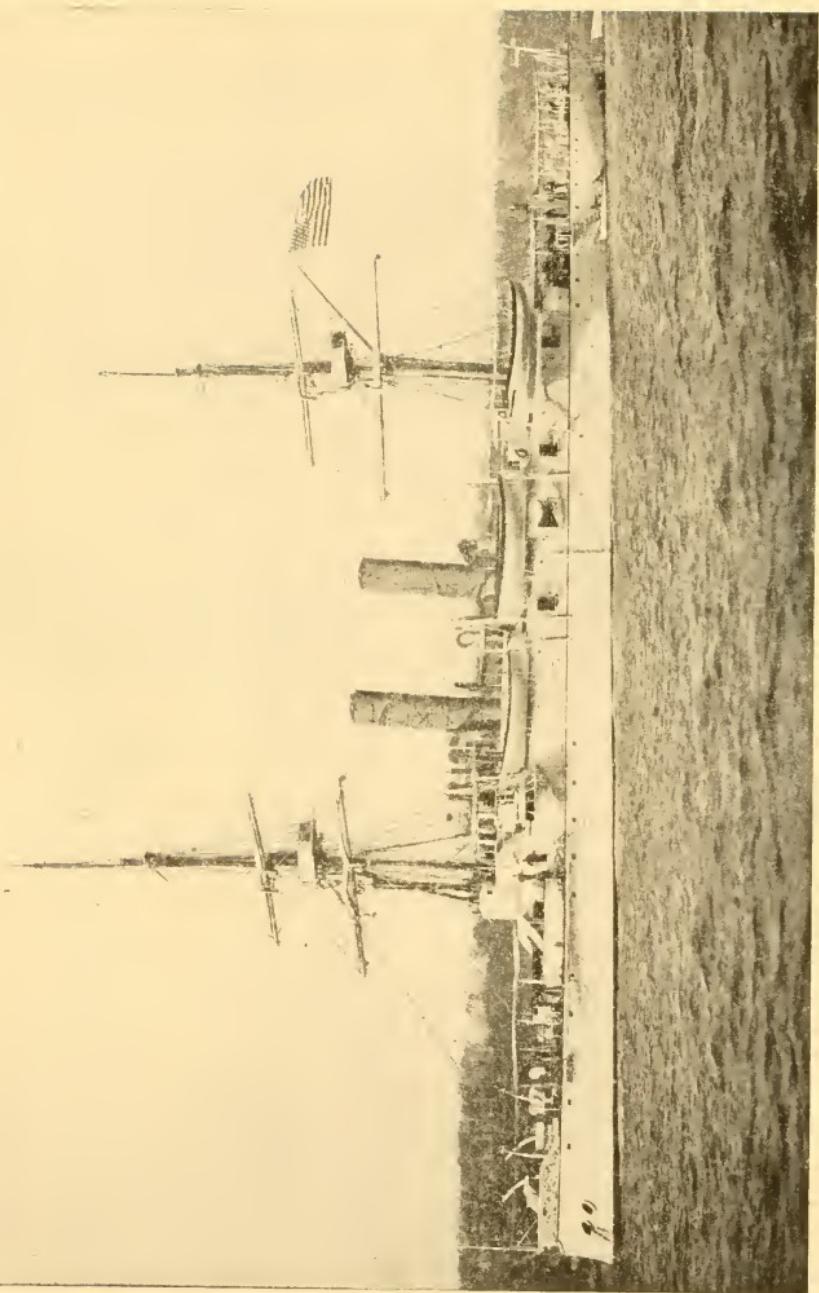
Admiral Dewey's flagship, Olympia.



midnight at the entrance to Manila Bay. It is one of the finest harbors in the world. It is one hundred and twenty miles in circumference, and one of the entrances to the bay is five miles wide. All lights on the United States ships were put out, except one at the stern of each vessel, which showed a vessel following how to steer. Dewey led the way, and the ships crept in past the forts on Corregidor Island. The little McCulloch was last in the line. The coal she was burning made a blaze, and three shots were fired from a battery on the island at the ships. The Boston and Concord fired back, but Dewey gave orders at once to cease firing. No damage was done on either side.

The American sailors slept on the decks beside their guns while the ships continued up the bay toward Manila. When daylight began to appear the men were aroused and a light breakfast was given to them. Dewey expected to find the Spanish fleet drawn up in front of the city of Manila, but it was not there. He turned and went back toward the entrance to the harbor along the east side of the bay to Cavité, where there was a naval arsenal, several forts on the main bay and also on a small bay called Baker Bay, which was formed by a point of land jutting out toward the city of Manila. Dewey had left the McCulloch and his two supply boats out in the middle of Manila Bay while he went hunting for the Spanish fleet. It was

The cruiser Boston.



5.15 A. M., on Sunday, May 1, just as he was leaving the water front of Manila, that a shot was fired from that city at the American fleet. Dewey by this time had discovered the Spanish vessels drawn up under the forts at Cavité. The Spaniards had no doubt that they would win. So careless were they that, instead of preparing their ships for fighting, most of the officers the night before had attended a ball in Manila. Dewey's vessels were expected, and the next morning all the Spanish officers were on hand to fight. They saw Dewey's vessels bearing down on them, and, with the Cavité forts to help them, all the ships began to shoot long before Dewey was in range. The Spanish ships were in a half circle at the entrance to Baker Bay. The American ships were in a line with the Olympia leading; then came the Baltimore, Raleigh, Concord, Petrel, and Boston.

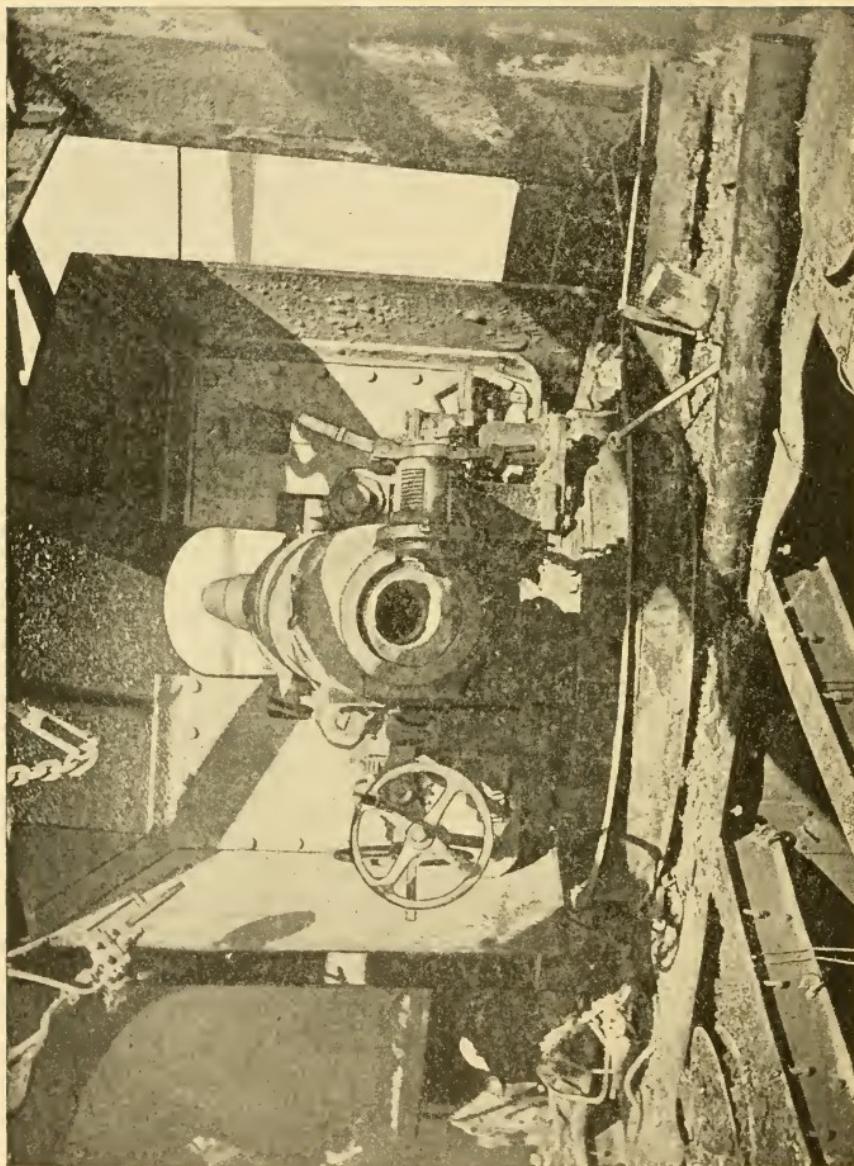
It was exactly at 5.35 o'clock in the morning when Dewey, who was standing on the bridge of the Olympia, turned to Captain Gridley, of the flagship, and said quietly:

“ You may begin, Gridley, whenever you wish.”

At once the eight-inch guns of the Olympia roared, and that was a signal for the other vessels of the American fleet to begin firing. Every vessel of the Spanish fleet was already in action, and the great guns of the forts at Cavité added to the noise. It was a beautiful morning, but very hot. The Ameri-

cans expected that they would be damaged severely and many men would be killed, and they went at their work furiously. Two mines were exploded in front of the Olympia as that vessel led the way past the Spanish fleet and forts, but Dewey, who had been on Farragut's flagship in the great fight in Mobile Bay when Farragut paid no attention to torpedoes and went ahead, followed the great admiral's example and continued to lead the way.

The first shot from the Spaniards showed that they were poor marksmen. The men on the American fleet could see that their own guns were doing great damage to the Spaniards. No attention was paid to the forts at Cavité. The American ships fought the Spanish ships alone. After the American vessels had passed the Spanish fleet, they swung about and went back. The form of their path was like a figure eight. The fighting was just as furious on the return trip, and when Dewey turned to begin another eight it was seen that the Spaniards were about to try something new. The Spanish flagship, Reina Cristina, left the rest of the fleet, and boldly steamed out to meet the Olympia. Every gun on the Olympia was trained against her; men were shot down in droves on her decks, and she turned about to flee. As she turned, an eight-inch shell from the Olympia struck the stern of the ship and passed clear through to the bow. That shot exploded the boilers and killed more than sixty men,



Scene on board the wreck of the *SS Cristina*

one of whom was the captain. The Reina Cristina at once was set on fire by the shot, and Admiral Montojo had to leave the ship and go to another, the Isla de Cuba.

Dewey was now on the return part of his second eight. He met a new difficulty. Two torpedo boats were seen to start from under the forts at Cavité and dart toward the Olympia. When they were three miles away, Dewey's men began to shoot at them with the big guns, but could not hit them because they were so small. On they came with great speed. This was the most trying part of the day. The American gunners watched them eagerly. When they were within eight hundred yards of the Olympia Dewey gave the word for the small guns on his ship to be turned against them. A terrible rain of steel was poured on them. The torpedo boat in the lead stopped suddenly, then went on a few yards, and finally a black puff of smoke burst from her decks. The American gunners had shot into her boilers and she blew up and sank at once. The other torpedo boat turned and ran to shore. She reached the beach in a sinking condition.

For the fifth time Dewey was soon passing the enemy. No one had been killed on his own ship, but he did not know how the other vessels had fared. His own supply of ammunition was getting low, and he signaled to the vessels to go out in the middle of the bay after they had passed the Spanish fleet and fort.



Admiral.



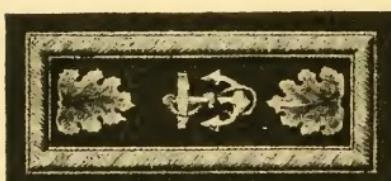
Rear-Admiral.



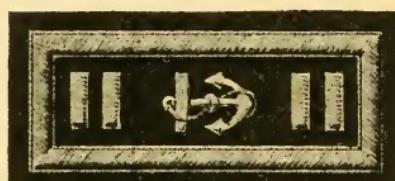
Captain.



Commander.



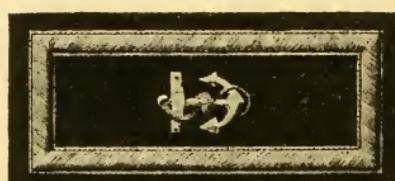
Lieutenant-Commander.



Lieutenant.



Lieutenant—Junior Grade.



Ensign.



Surgeon.



Paymaster.

SHOULDER STRAPS OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY.

He saw that several of the Spanish vessels were on fire, and he decided to give his men a rest and time to have breakfast before beginning again. It was then 7.45 A. M. The Spaniards thought the Americans were beaten and had retired. Dewey was not that kind of a man. He called at once for reports as to the loss of life. Every captain reported that no men had been killed; the Baltimore reported that six men had been wounded slightly. Cheer upon cheer rang from the American ships when they heard this news, and then the men ate a cold breakfast. Most of them then stretched themselves out to rest before more work began.

Dewey called his captains on his flagship to consult as to the rest of the battle. Like the great fight in Mobile Bay, this fight was to have two parts. It was decided to take the American ships close to the enemy, and to remain there while the finishing work was done. At 10.45 o'clock Dewey ordered the Baltimore to go at full speed toward the forts and ships, and to fire as fast as possible at them. She went close to the enemy and stopped soon after she began to shoot. Twenty minutes later the Olympia came up and took the Baltimore's place, the Baltimore moving down the line quite a distance. Then the Raleigh and the Boston took the places of the Olympia and the Baltimore, and continued the firing. The little Petrel and the Concord ran around to the entrance of Baker Bay and

kept up a sharp fight. The Petrel is one of the smallest vessels in the United States navy, but her work at this time was so bold and brilliant that the sailors of the American fleet called her at once "the baby battle ship." One after another the Spanish vessels began to burn or sink, and little by little the guns on the forts, which were attacked in this second fight, ceased to fire. At 12.45 o'clock the Petrel and Boston and Raleigh were the only American ships firing at the enemy, and exactly at 1.05 p. m. the Spanish flag was lowered at Cavit , and the fight was over.

No such naval fight was ever known before. Three of the Spanish vessels were sunk and eight were burned. Not one escaped. The wreckage was awful. It is not known how many men on the Spanish fleet and in the forts were killed, but it is probable that more than five hundred were killed on the ships and three hundred on the land. Nearly fifteen hundred of the Spaniards were also wounded, many of whom died. The only ship of the American fleet to receive any damage worthy of note was the Baltimore, which was hit by a 4.7-inch shell, that entered her side and injured six of the crew. Several of the American officers had narrow escapes. Among these was Commodore Dewey. He stood on the bridge of the Olympia during the entire fight, and a shot passed a few feet over his head and the heads of those with him, and cut off the signal halyards. The Boston's



Lieut. Hobson.

Rear-Admiral Sampson.

Admiral Dewey.

Captain Sigsbee.

Rear-Admiral Schley.

Naval heroes of the war with Spain.

boats, with the exception of one, were destroyed from the blast of her own guns. A ten-inch shell from the Spanish forts struck the water close to the bow of the Olympia and bounded clear over the vessel. In all the Olympia was hit thirteen times: three times in the hull, and the rest in the rigging. Most of the other American vessels had some scars in the rigging, but the damage done to them amounted to almost nothing.

When the men on the American fleet saw that the fight was over for good, they danced and sang and wept. Many of them got down on their knees on deck and thanked God for bringing every man in the fleet through the battle safely. Dewey turned to his staff and said:

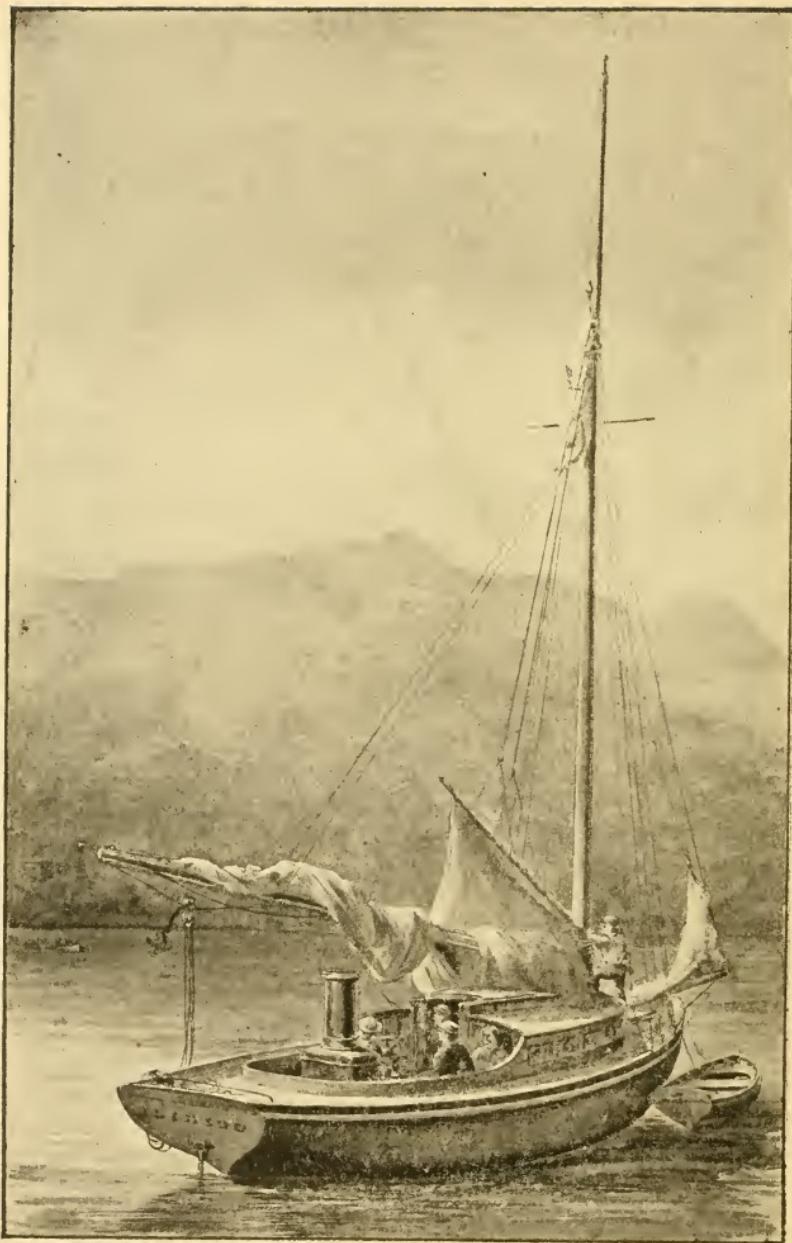
“I have the finest lot of men that ever stepped on shipboard, and their hearts are as stout as their ships.”

It was not until a week later that the details of the wonderful victory reached the United States. Dewey’s name was upon millions of lips. All over the country there was great rejoicing. The President made Dewey rear admiral, and Congress sent him and his men a vote of thanks. Not only was his victory unlike anything in history, but it was said that such a triumph would never be repeated. No one could foresee that two months later the United States navy would win a victory off the coast of Cuba almost exactly like the one Dewey had won in Manila Bay.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE NAVAL BATTLE OF JULY 3, NEAR SANTIAGO.

SOON after the war with Spain began, it was thought probable that there would be a great naval fight somewhere near Cuba's coast. Spain's navy seemed almost as strong as that of the United States. It had several very fast torpedo boat destroyers, a class of vessels which the United States did not own, and four armored cruisers ready for fighting, which were probably the best of the kind in the world. They were really fast battle ships. The United States had on the Atlantic coast five battle ships, after the Oregon had been sent around South America from San Francisco on a wonderful trip, several monitors, two armored cruisers and a dozen or more unarmored cruisers, besides fully fifty yachts and merchant vessels which had been made into war ships, to meet the Spanish fleet. Spain sent her armored cruisers and several fast torpedo boats to the Cape Verde Islands, and they were there for some time after war had been declared. Portugal finally told Spain that her vessels must leave there, and on April 29th they started. No one in the



The Cuban navy; the only vessel owned by the Cubans.

United States knew exactly where they were going. Some said they would return to Spain, and others said that they were bound for Havana. Still others feared that they were about to attack the New England coast. The last that was seen of them, after they left the Cape Verde Islands, showed that they were headed in a westerly direction, as if to cross the Atlantic.

The United States had the larger part of its navy on the Atlantic at Key West and on the blockade off Havana under the command of Acting-Admiral Sampson. What was known as a "flying squadron" was held in Hampton Roads under command of Commodore Schley. It was to dash out and attack the Spanish fleet in case it should appear off the north Atlantic coast. A patrol of war ships was kept up from Maine to Chesapeake Bay, and all the chief harbors of the coast were protected by mines. All the forts along the Atlantic were also strengthened.

The first engagement in which the ships of the United States took part in the war was on April 27, 1898, when Admiral Sampson, on the New York, with two smaller vessels bombarded the forts at Matanzas on the north side of Cuba. The forts were damaged slightly, but the ships were not damaged at all. On May 11th the torpedo boat Winslow and the revenue cutter Hudson ran into the harbor at Cardenas and engaged the forts there. Two Spanish gun-boats were hidden in the bay and began to fire on the

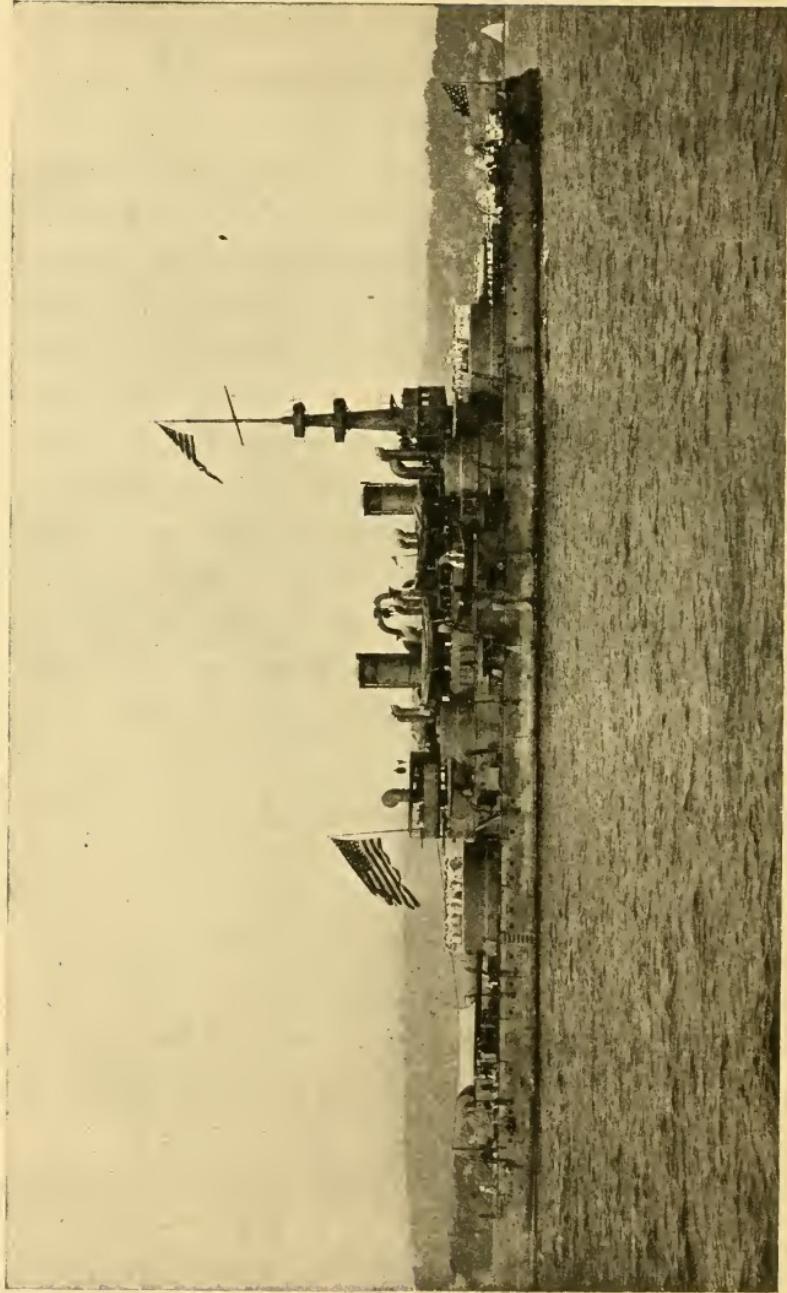
Winslow, whose exact range they had. The Winslow was disabled quickly, and Ensign Worth Bagley and several of the crew were killed. Bagley was the first and only naval officer to be killed in battle in this war. The revenue cutter Hudson went to the assistance of the Winslow, and under a furious fire, during which the United States sailors showed great bravery, towed the Winslow out of the harbor.

The Cape Verde fleet from Spain had not been sighted, and a few days before Bagley was killed Admiral Sampson ran along the coast of Cuba eastward to Porto Rico, to see if the Spanish ships had arrived there. For several hours on the morning of May 12th he bombarded San Juan, the chief port of the island, and then, finding no Spanish war ships, turned about and started for Key West again. On the very day that Sampson bombarded San Juan the Spanish ships, under command of Admiral Cervera, reached the island of Martinique, in the West Indies. At last the United States had learned where the Spanish ships were. The next day, May 13th, Commodore Schley with his flying squadron started south from Hampton Roads to try to find Cervera. He was ordered to stop at Key West and get the latest news. On May 15th it was learned that Cervera and his fleet were at Curaçao, in the Caribbean Sea. The Spanish vessels only stayed two days and disappeared again. Meantime Sampson and Schley had met at Key West, and Samp-

son started out along the north coast of Cuba, and Schley went along the south coast in the hope of catching Cervera. On May 20th word reached the United States that Cervera had slipped into the harbor at Santiago. It was a harbor guarded by mountains and great forts, and had a very narrow entrance, so that it would be almost impossible for an enemy's fleet to enter.

Schley went slowly along the south coast and stopped several days off Cienfuegos, where he thought the Spanish vessels might be in hiding, and finding out that they were not there, started for Santiago. He moved very carefully, and it was not until May 29th that he arrived off Santiago, and in a day or two made sure that the Spanish fleet was there. Just before he reached Santiago he turned back for Key West, so as to coal his ships. He was much blamed for this afterward. The sea became smooth soon after he turned about, and his ships were coaled from a supply vessel. He then went at once to Santiago. He blockaded the harbor, and on June 3d bombarded the forts to learn how strong they were and where their guns were placed.

Sampson soon joined Schley, and in a few days about seventy-five vessels of various kinds of the United States were stationed off Santiago. The fighting vessels were in a semicircle, from three to five miles away from the entrance to the harbor. Samp-



Battle ship Massachusetts.

son soon seized the harbor of Guantanamo, as a port of refuge where he might coal his ships and send some of them in case tornadoes should sweep the coast. An effort had also been made to cut the cables leading from Cuba, so that no messages could be received from or sent to Spain, and in this work several men on some of the smaller ships had been killed. All who had been engaged in the work had shown great bravery. Sampson bombarded the forts at Santiago and at other places near by on the coast from time to time, and kept a constant watch upon the narrow entrance to the harbor, day and night, lest the Spanish ships should come out and fight him or try to run away. An army corps under General Shafter had been sent down, and Sampson had assisted in landing the troops about twenty miles east of Santiago; then he returned to the watch with most of his ships off the port again. It was hard, hot, and nervous work. It was feared that during a fog or a storm Cervera might come out and sail through the fleet with his fast ships and escape to Havana, where he really wanted to go. It was also feared that the Spanish torpedo boats might steal out in the darkness and do great damage to the fleet.

Finally a plan was adopted which Lieutenant Richmond Pearson Hobson had formed, to sink a vessel in the narrow entrance to Santiago harbor, and thus make sure that Cervera could not get out. It was a

daring plan, and it made Hobson, who with seven others carried it out, a national hero, such as Cushing became through his exploits in the civil war. Hobson took the steamship Merrimac, which had been loaded with coal for the United States fleet, and stripped her of movable things and most of the cargo. He had torpedoes attached to the vessel, and early on the morning of June 3d started on his work. Daylight was approaching, and Admiral Sampson recalled him. He started the next morning about three o'clock. Two men were in the engine room to run the engine, and the others were detailed to assist Hobson on deck, in steering, in exploding the torpedoes placed along the vessel's side, and in dropping the anchors fore and aft. In the darkness they stole away from the American fleet, and they were almost inside the harbor before they were seen. All of Hobson's men on deck, except the steersman, were lying flat, and had orders not to move in case they were wounded. Almost every man on the American fleet had volunteered to go with Hobson on this trip, which seemed almost certain death.

There were no lights, of course, on the Merrimac. Soon a rocket shot up from Morro Castle, the chief fort at the entrance of the bay, and almost at once the roar of big and little guns was heard by those on the American fleet. It was a furious storm of flashes from Spanish guns, and roars like thunder peals. It lasted for nearly an hour and then ceased. Daylight had

come, and a small launch from the New York, under Ensign Powell's command, hovered about the entrance to the harbor under fire, in the hope that Hobson and his companions had escaped in a small boat, and that the launch could rescue them. Powell came back finally, and said that he could see nothing of Hobson and his men. Through their glasses the officers of the American fleet could see that the Merrimac had been sunk in the channel, and all thought that Hobson and his crew must have been killed. Late that afternoon, however, a small boat was seen coming out of Santiago harbor under a flag of truce. A Spanish naval officer was on board and he was taken to Admiral Sampson's flagship, where he said he was sent by Admiral Cervera to bring the good news that Hobson and all his men were safe. Admiral Cervera said that Hobson's deed was so brave that he felt it to be his duty as a man who loved courage and rejoiced to see heroism, even though shown by an enemy, to send word to the American fleet that Hobson and his men were safe and were held as prisoners. The Spanish officer offered to take clothing and other things back for Hobson and his men. It was a graceful act on the part of the Spanish admiral, and the American people showed at once by their many kind words that although Cervera was an enemy for the time being, he had the respect and admiration of all true citizens of the United States.

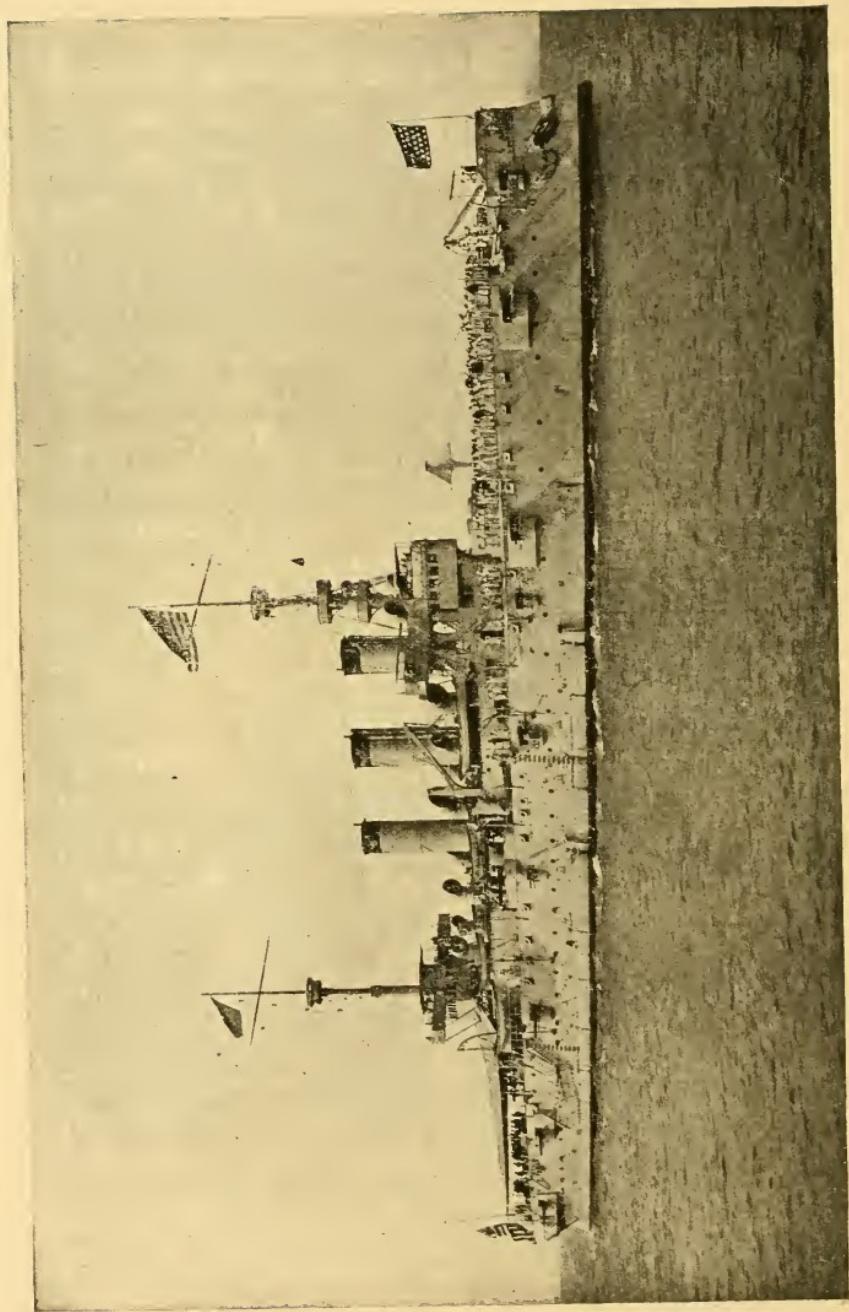
It was learned afterward that the fire from the forts on the Merrimac was terrific. The Merrimac was shot through and through, her decks were torn, and her rudder was disabled. Two of the large Spanish cruisers in the port also fired on her, and a torpedo boat hurled torpedoes at her. Not a man in Hobson's crew stirred until the orders were given to let go the anchors, and for all hands to meet on the quarter-deck, where Hobson had the wires leading to the torpedoes on his own ship. Amid the crash and thunder of many cannon and the screech of hundreds of shells, Hobson exploded some of his torpedoes, the wires to most of them having been destroyed, and the Merrimac, which had also been damaged by a Spanish torpedo, began to sink almost as soon as she was checked by her anchors.

Hobson and his men clung to a raft during the rest of the darkness. They barely kept their heads above water, because Spanish picket boats were passing about the wreck constantly, ready to shoot any one who might have survived. Soon after daylight a launch was seen coming near the sunken Merrimac. Hobson called out, asking if there was a Spanish officer on board to whom he might surrender. Up to that time the Spaniards thought they had sunk a battle ship and that all on board had been lost. The chief officer in the launch was Admiral Cervera himself, and although the guards in the boat pointed their guns at the raft to

which Hobson and his men were clinging they did not shoot, and Cervera helped Hobson into the launch. When he learned the story of the Merrimac from Hobson's lips he praised Hobson and his men, and said he would send word of their safety to Admiral Sampson. Hobson and his companions were kept prisoners for about a month, and then were exchanged. Hobson was soon afterward sent to the United States on naval business, and wherever he went he was greeted by throngs and cheers.

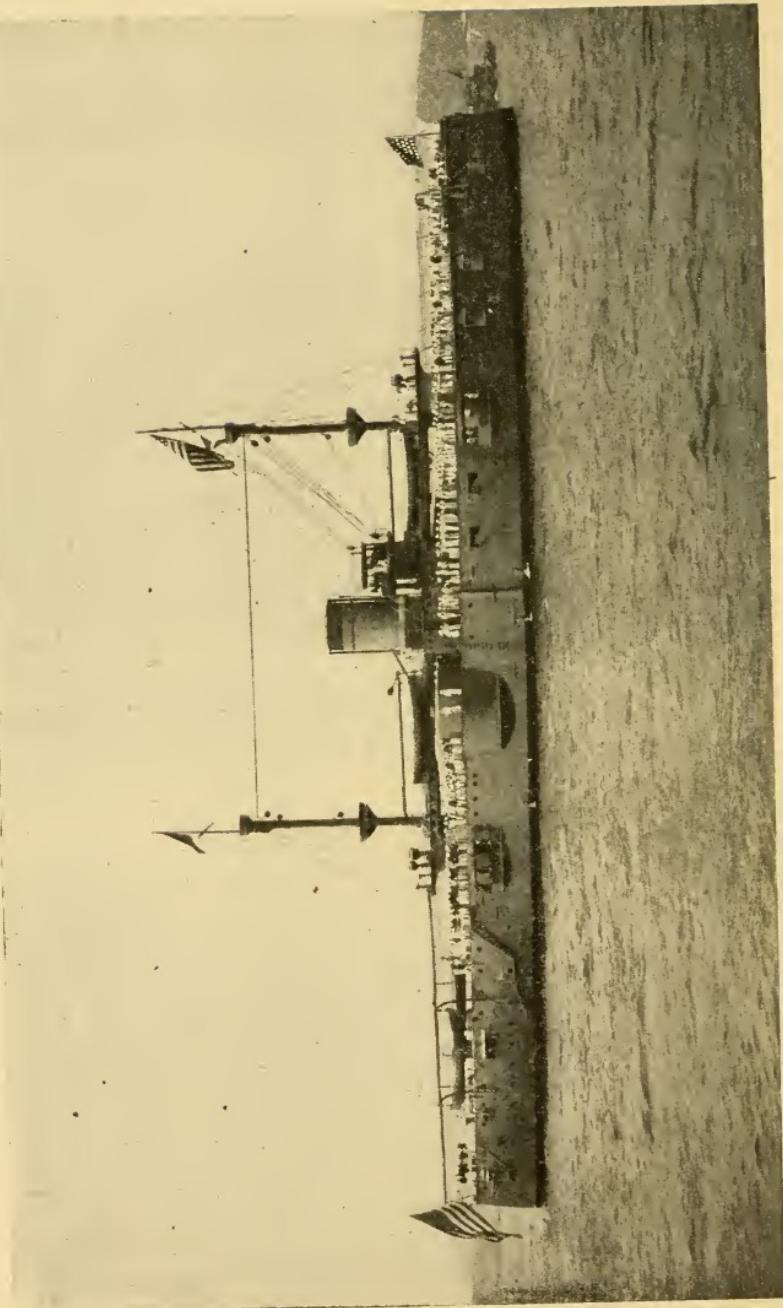
It was soon learned that the Merrimac did not block entirely the channel at Santiago. When the rudder was shot away, Hobson could not swing the boat around, as he had planned. Sampson and Schley kept up their watch closely, but it was thought that the Spanish ships would stay in the harbor to help the Spanish army fight the American army under General Shafter. Cervera, however, got orders to leave the harbor at once and try to dash past the American ships and fight his way through the blockade off Havana, so as to reach that port. It was Sunday morning, July 3d, when the men on the American ships were at quarters and would least expect it, that Cervera left Santiago. He had made his plans the night before, and soon after eight o'clock on that morning received a signal that Admiral Sampson had left the blockade to go east. Sampson intended to land to have a talk with General Shafter.

Admiral Sampson's flagship, New York.



Sampson, with his fast flagship, the New York, had been stationed at the eastern end of the semi-circle of blockading ships, and Schley, on his even faster flagship, the Brooklyn, had been stationed on the western end. Between the New York and Brooklyn were the stations of the Oregon, Iowa, Massachusetts, Indiana, and Texas. There was a general understanding in the American fleet that if the Spanish ships should come out, the American ships should close up to the mouth of the harbor and try to destroy them. The Spanish ships had full steam up on the morning of July 3d, while the Americans had many boilers on their ships not in use. Cervera decided to run out of port at full speed, and make at once for the Brooklyn. It was thought that if the Brooklyn could be disabled or destroyed, some of the Spanish ships could outrun the rest of the American vessels, and perhaps that all might escape.

It was exactly 9.35 A. M. when the first of the Spanish ships was seen coming out of the harbor. Signals were hoisted almost at once saying, "Enemy's ships escaping," on almost all of the American ships. The battle ship Iowa fired a gun to call attention to the signals. The Spanish ships came out in single file. In the lead was the Infanta Maria Teresa, and she was followed at intervals of about four hundred yards by the Vizcaya, Cristobal Colon, and Almirante Oquendo. Following the Oquendo were two torpedo

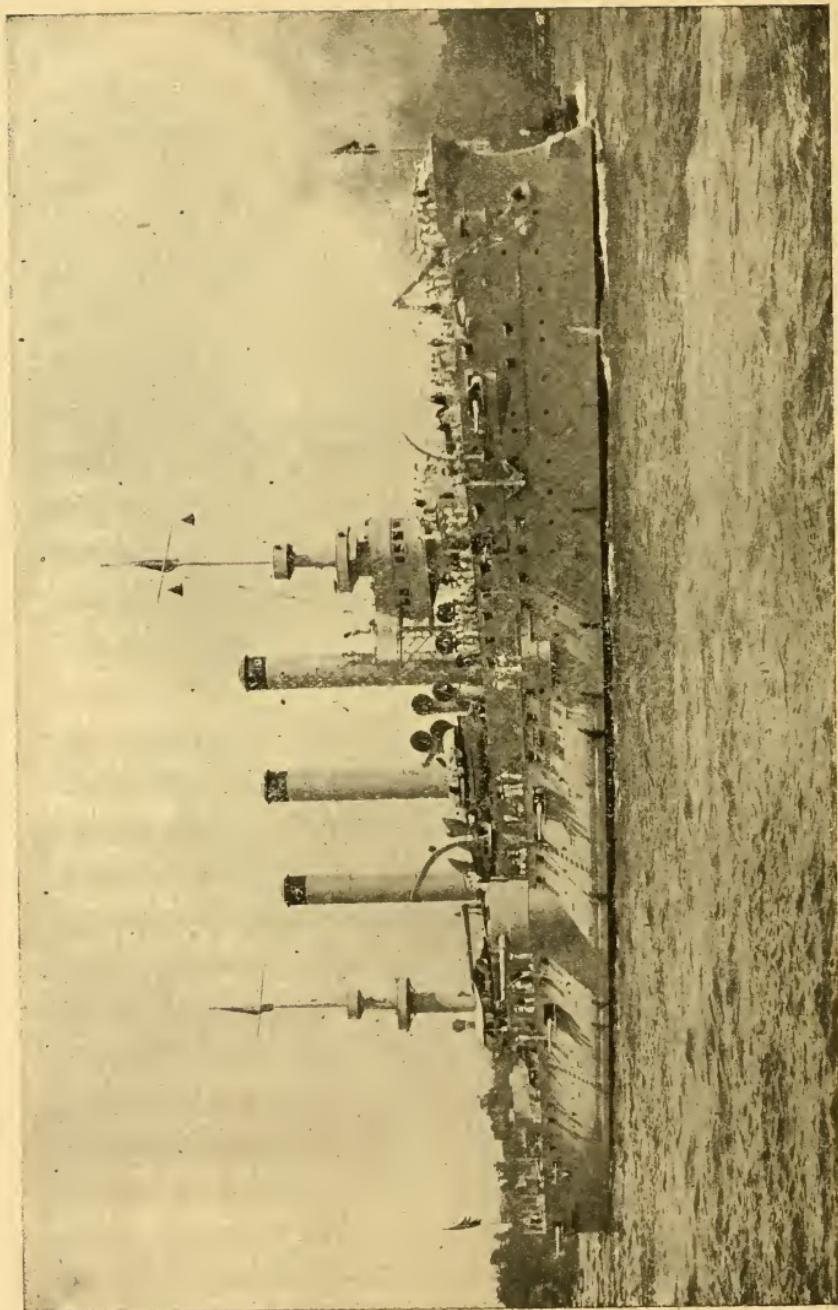


Second-class battleship Texas, which took part in the fight with Admiral Cervera's fleet.

boat destroyers, the Pluton and Furor. They were nearly half a mile behind the Oquendo. Admiral Sampson being about twelve miles away, Commodore Schley was in command of the American vessels. The battle ship Massachusetts had gone to Guantanamo for coal, and took no part in the fight. The American vessels that did the fighting were the Brooklyn, the Texas, the Oregon, the Iowa, the Indiana, and two small vessels which had formerly been private yachts, and which were called the Gloucester and the Vixen. The Iowa and Texas were almost directly opposite the harbor entrance. The Oregon and Indiana were some distance to the eastward, and the Brooklyn was to the westward. The Gloucester lay near the Oregon, and the Vixen was close to the shore and nearest to the Brooklyn on the west.

Cervera's flagship was the Teresa, which came out first. As soon as the American ships were within sight he began to fire. By this time the American ships were in fighting trim, and every man was at his post. Smoke was pouring from the funnels, and powder and shot were being passed to guns. All the American ships were also in motion toward the harbor entrance. Cervera saw at once that to escape he must turn toward the west. He saw that it was useless to fight with his ships coming out one by one, as they were, and one by one receiving the awful fire of the American ships. He turned sharply toward the west.

Admiral Schley's flagship, Brooklyn.



Before he had made the turn, however, it seemed as if every gun on the American ships had sent some kind of a missile into his flagship. A large shell had entered the boat and cut the water pipe, which was used to put out fires.

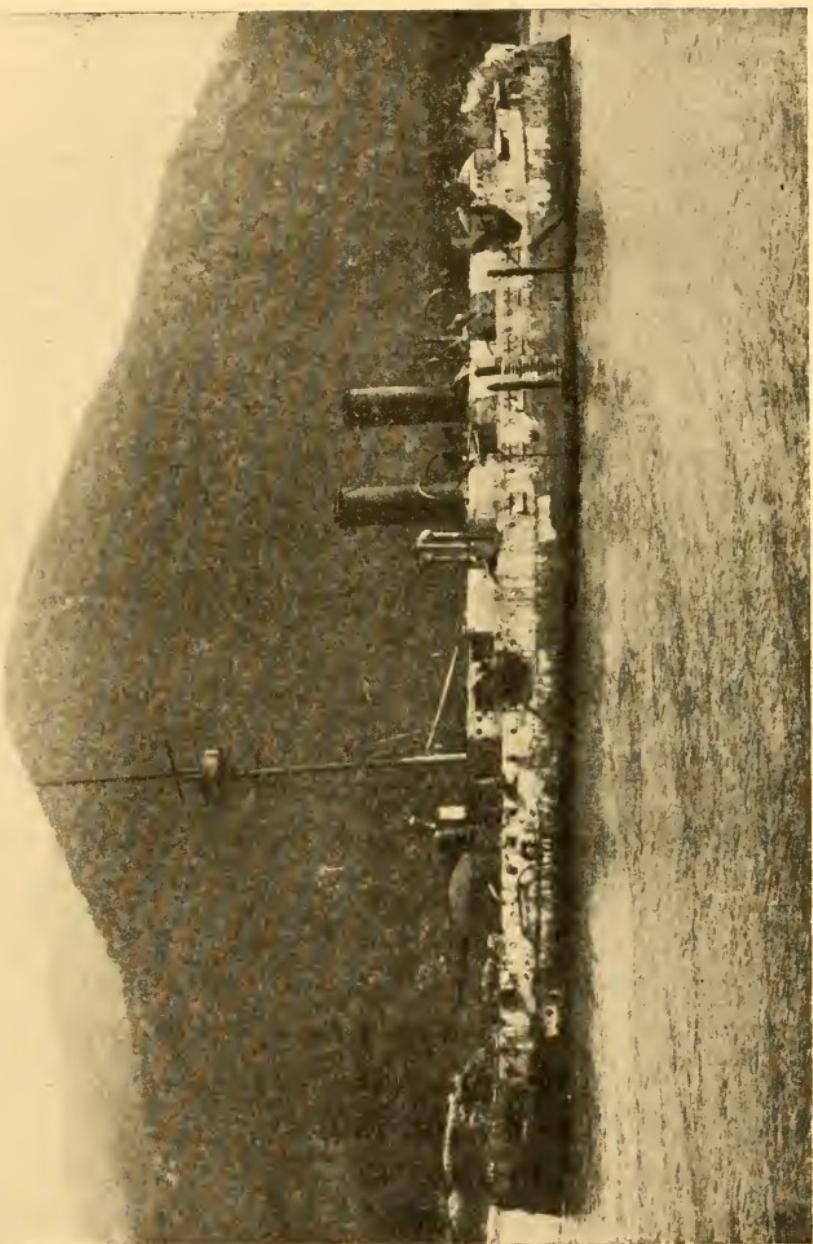
Cervera had not gone a mile before his ship was useless. Scores of men were killed on board, and fires were burning in many places. Commodore Schley on the Brooklyn made a turn with his ship and started toward the west after the fleeing Spaniard. When the Vizeaya appeared around the entrance to the port she, too, was met by a terrible fire. One thirteen-inch shell alone killed more than sixty of her crew. She was not so badly damaged as the Teresa, and she managed to pass ahead of the flagship. The Cristobal Colon, the fastest of the Spanish ships, escaped without much damage as she came out of the harbor, and running inside of the Teresa, which was now lagging behind, and the Vizeaya, which was making a hard race for life, soon passed to the front out of the range of the American ships, and seemed safe from capture. When the Oquendo came out, she received the fire of most of the American ships, and suffered almost as much damage as the Teresa.

Then came the two torpedo boats. The American fleet had been moving somewhat slowly toward the west. Two of the Spanish vessels, the Colon and Vizcaya, were far ahead of them, and looked to be safe.

The Teresa and Oquendo were hopelessly crippled, and while the American ships were firing their big guns at them the same ships turned their smaller guns on the torpedo boats Furor and Pluton. The Gloucester ran up to meet those boats, and began to shoot at them with great vigor. A shell from the Iowa pierced the boiler of the Pluton, and a black column of smoke leaped from her deck and she began to sink. The Gloucester dashed in under the forts and drove the Furor on the beach, where she sank in the surf. Of the one hundred and forty men on these two torpedo boats, only eighteen were saved. No more gallant work was ever done in battle than was done by Commander Wainwright on the Gloucester. The Pluton and the Furor were destroyed within twenty minutes after they appeared. They had not gone more than three miles from the harbor.

It was exactly at 10.15 a. m., or forty minutes from the time she came out of the harbor, that the Teresa was seen to turn toward the shore at a place called Nimawima, six miles and a half from Santiago harbor. She soon struck the beach, and those of her crew who were not dead or wounded leaped overboard to escape the fire that was sweeping through the ship, and began to swim for safety. Among them was Admiral Cervera. Most of the American ships were abreast of the Teresa by this time, with the exception of the Indiana, and orders were given to cease firing.

Spanish cruiser Maria Terasa after the battle off Santiago.



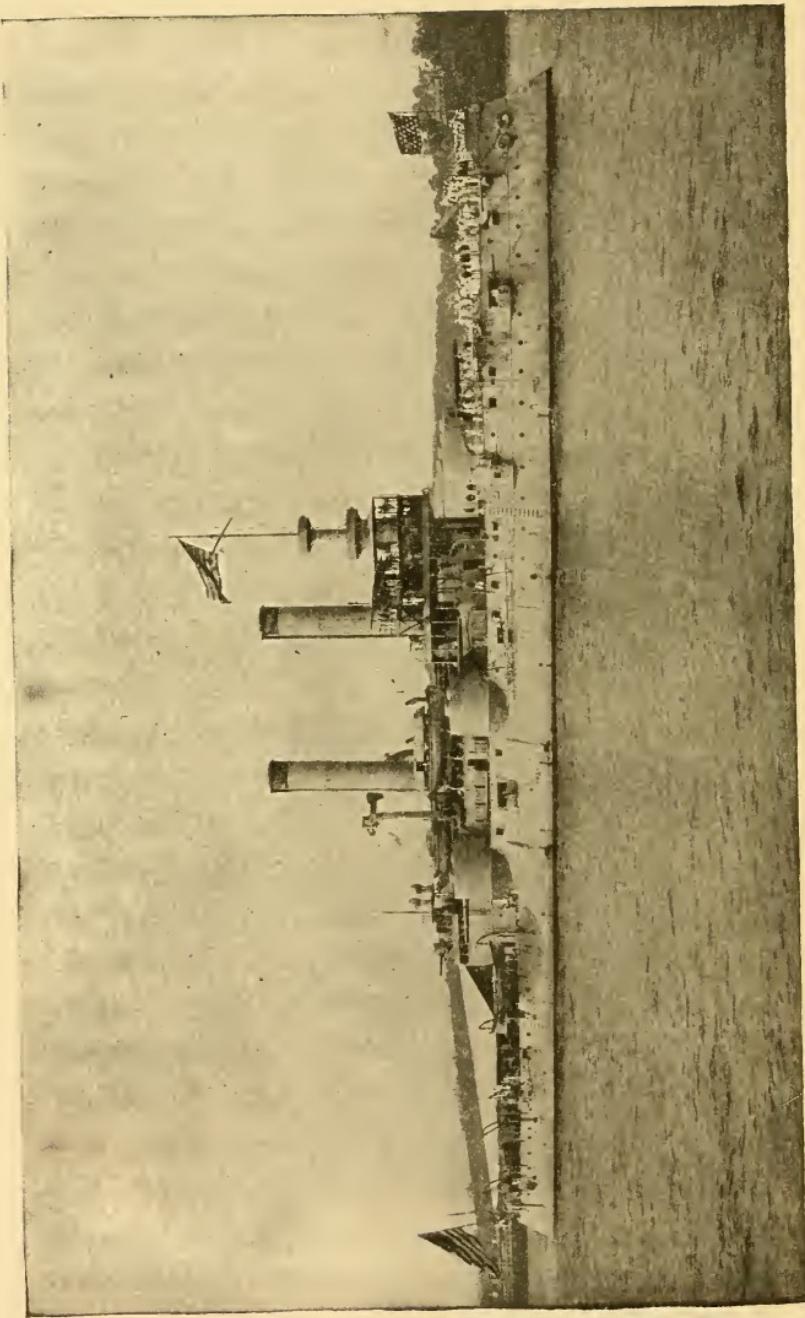
Ten minutes later the Oquendo, which had come up and had gone about six hundred yards past the spot where the Teresa was beached, turned her prow toward the shore and in flames struck the ground a complete wreck. Her men also leaped in the water and began to swim for their lives. The Gloucester came up and took Admiral Cervera on board, and protected the Spanish crews from some Cubans who were shooting at them after they had landed helpless on the shore.

By this time Admiral Sampson had come hurrying back in his flagship. The Indiana had been unable to take up the chase for the fleeing Colon and Vizcaya, and he ordered the Indiana back to the harbor to guard it. Meantime the Brooklyn, Oregon, Texas, and Iowa were dashing down the coast after the Vizcaya. She soon received the fire from all, and was damaged most severely by the Oregon, which, with a mighty rush of speed, had passed all the other American ships except the Brooklyn. The Oregon had shown her merit in her fast trip from the Pacific to the Cuban waters, and she was now to prove her worth and the wisdom of bringing her on so long a journey by great services in battle. At 11.15 the Vizcaya could no longer stand the fire she was receiving from all the ships, and she, too, ran ashore. At this time the Brooklyn was in the lead of the American vessels, the Oregon next, the Texas following, and the Iowa last. As the Texas ceased to fire on the Vizcaya, and it was

seen that she was a wreck, the men on the Texas began to cheer. Captain J. W. Philip, of the Texas, at once shouted to his men:

"Don't cheer, men; the poor fellows there are dying."

The Iowa was left to take care of the Vizcaya, and then there came a two hours' chase for the Colon. The Colon kept near the shore, and Commodore Schley, on the Brooklyn, put out to sea a little, steering for a cape where he knew that he could head off the Colon. The Oregon was still coming up at great speed, with smoke and flame pouring out of her smokestacks. The Texas was also making fast time, and Schley saw that the Oregon would soon catch the Colon, and the Texas also might be able to overhaul her. At last the Oregon came within four miles of the Colon, and began to shoot at her with thirteen-inch guns. One shot landed close to the stern, and another struck the water near the bow. At the same time the Brooklyn, which was abreast of the Colon, and about three miles off, began firing at her with eight-inch guns. The captain of the Colon saw that his ship was doomed, and turned to the shore at 1.15 p. m. He fired a gun from the lee side of his ship, which meant that he had given up. She was then forty-eight miles west of Santiago. The New York arrived almost as soon as the Brooklyn closed in, and Admiral Sampson took charge of affairs.



Battle ship Iowa.

The dead on the Spanish ships numbered more than five hundred, and the wounded numbered more than twelve hundred. Nearly two thousand men were taken prisoners. Only one man was killed on the United States fleet. He was a chief yeoman, named Ellis, on the Brooklyn. One man was also wounded on the Brooklyn. Nearly all of the American ships were hit during the fight, the Brooklyn being struck about twenty-five times, but the damage was not serious on any of them, and all were in as good fighting condition at the close as at the beginning of the fight. It was practically as great a victory as that won by Dewey at Manila. In the Santiago fight the American ships had to meet the very best kind of modern war ships. Spain's vessels were unable to go as fast as was expected, because of poor coal and because the bottoms of the vessels were very foul with barnacles and weeds. The Vizcaya and Oquendo were so riddled and burned that they were ruined. The United States naval officers, however, thought they could save the Teresa and Colon and add them to the American navy. The Teresa was raised, but was lost while being brought to this country.

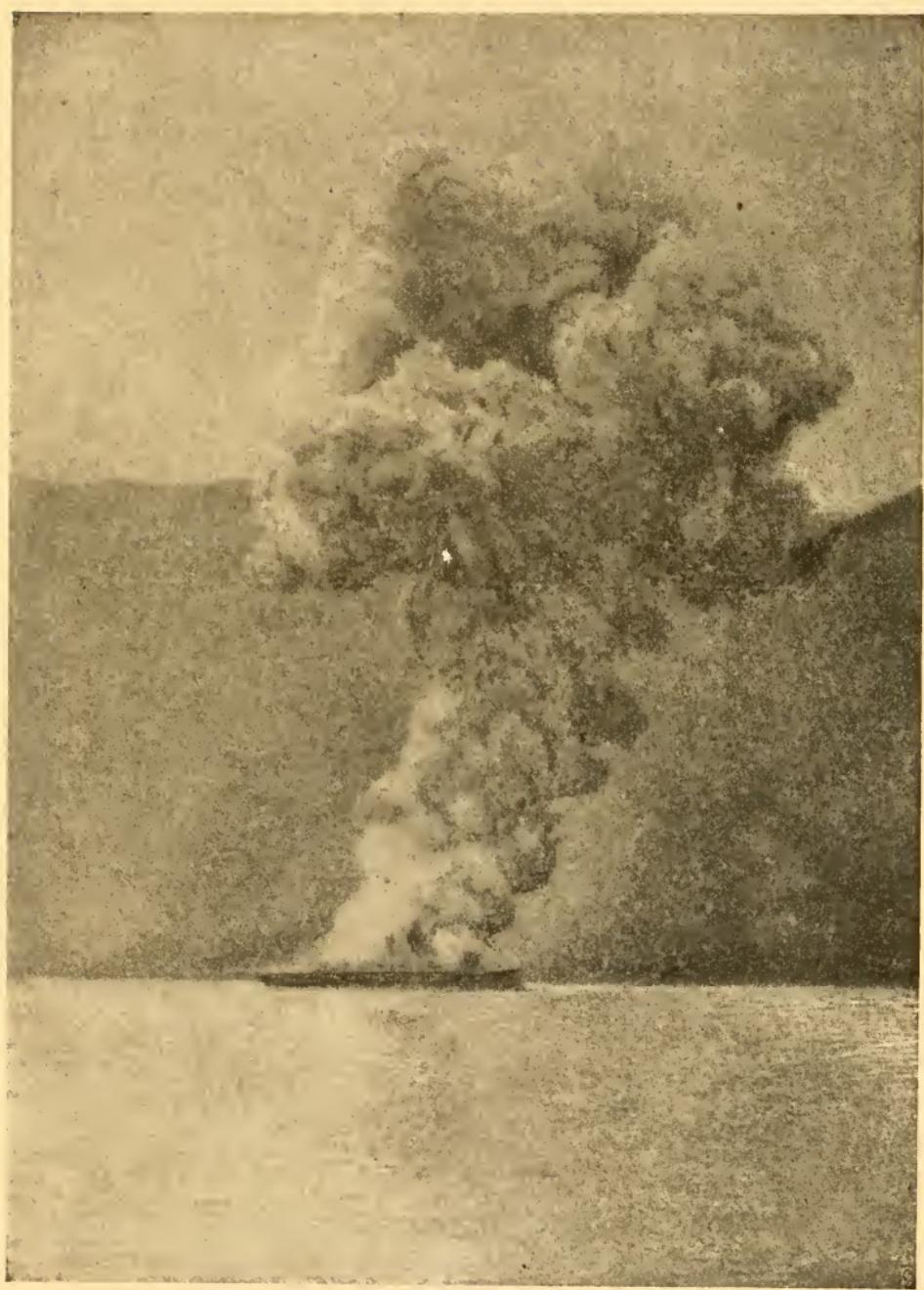
On board the Spanish ships which went ashore the guns were loaded, and the fire set them off and exploded the ammunition in the magazines. The American sailors showed great bravery in going aboard the Spanish ships at this time, and in saving wounded

and dying men. The condition of the Vizeaya proved that when the Maine was blown up in Havana harbor it was not an accident. Spain had said that one of the magazines of the Maine had exploded, but she could not explain why the bottom of the ship came to the top of the wreck. One of the magazines on the Vizeaya exploded while she was on the beach, and the bottom of the ship was blown down and away from the wreck, proving that the Maine must have been destroyed by a mine which had been set off by Spanish agents.

As soon as the battle was over there was a scene on board the Texas which touched the heart of the American nation, and showed the kind of stuff of which an American crew and their captain is made. The crew lined up and gave three cheers for Captain Philip. The captain then called every man that could be spared to the quarter-deck, and with his head bared made this remarkable speech to his men:

“I want to make public acknowledgment here that I believe in God the Father Almighty. I want all you officers and men to lift your hats, and from your hearts offer silent thanks to the Almighty for this day.”

All hats came off, and after a moment or two of silence the crew burst into cheers again for their captain.



Vizcaya at the moment of the explosion of her magazines.
From an instantaneous photograph.

Commodore Schley, who was in charge of the fleet during the fighting, gave Admiral Sampson full credit for the victory, and said to Sampson in his report that he was glad to take part in a "victory that seems big enough for all of us."

Captain Evans, of the Iowa, known in the navy as "Fighting Bob," won praise throughout the land by this remark about his sailors in his report:

"So long as the enemy showed his flag they fought like American seamen, but when the flag came down they were as gentle and tender as American women."

In this great fight all the crews of the American ships showed equal bravery. The men at the guns never flinched, although thousands of shots were flying near them, and the men who were feeding the fires stuck to their work in the awful heat and toiled as they had never done before. Some of them fainted several times, but they would not leave the fire rooms, and as much credit should be given to the stokers who kept the fires bright as to the gunners who destroyed the enemy's ships. It was the general opinion that if any one vessel was to be singled out for special praise it was the Oregon, which came to the assistance of the Brooklyn in gallant style, and helped the Brooklyn to finish a glorious contest. The Spaniards fought bravely, but, having had no target practice, they could not shoot straight. The Americans knew how to shoot, and that won the day. Spain had now only

two first-class vessels left in her navy—a battle ship and an armored cruiser—and she was helpless on the ocean. Santiago soon surrendered to General Shafter, and in less than one month Spain asked the United States for terms of peace.

Some of the small vessels of the navy entered harbors on the Cuban coast and destroyed several gunboats as Sampson's fleet had destroyed the larger ships. Half a dozen small gunboats were captured in various Cuban harbors and added to the American navy. The part that the navy played in the war was indeed glorious.

CHAPTER XV.

VERA CRUZ—1914.

AFTER the Spanish War ended there was no active war service for the navy until April, 1914, when what was called an "Expeditionary Force" was sent to Vera Cruz by President Woodrow Wilson to force a salute to the American flag, in reparation for an insult at Tampico to our flag and government by the Huerta government, at that time in control of Mexico. Although no declaration of war was made by either side a state of war existed and the outcome was a two-days' fight in the capture of Vera Cruz on the morning of April 22, by about 7,000 of our marines and sailors. In the fighting 17 of our men were killed outright and half a dozen of the 50 wounded, died later. The Mexicans lost 126 soldiers and citizen "snipers" in the fighting and about 300 were wounded.

Later an army force of about 10,000 men was sent to Vera Cruz under command of Brig. Gen. Frederick Funston. It remained there until the following November. Huerta, whom the United States gov-

ernment had refused to recognize as the legal President of Mexico, because of his alleged participation in the murder of Francisco Madero, deposed as President by General Huerta, meantime had fled from Mexico. He left the country in a state of anarchy and one provisional President after another followed. President Wilson ordered the army and navy home in the fall of 1914, and the salute to the American flag, which Mr. Wilson demanded and which was the occasion of our armed invasion of a foreign country, followed by bloodshed, was never given. Mexican pride was not humiliated.

Mexico had been in a state of revolution for more than three years. Diaz, who, in spite of the constitution of the country, had made himself a sort of perpetual president and who had ruled the country as a dictator for a generation, was forced to flee finally through the uprising started by Madero and the latter was elected President at a legal but farcical election. His friends finally turned against him. Huerta, who had been one of his mainstays, joined in the movement to oust him. Huerta was charged openly not only with treachery, but with ordering the assassination of Madero while the latter was being taken to jail from the President's residence. Huerta always denied that he had instigated the murder.

Many foreign governments recognized Huerta as *de facto* President, but President Wilson refused to

so recognize him. Meantime a revolution had started against Huerta and later these revolutionists fell out against one another. There were many large foreign investments in Mexico, chiefly in mining and in oil fields. Foreign governments unofficially kept asking the United States to restore peace in the stricken country and protect their interests. American investors in oil fields seemed arrayed for a time against English investors. Soon the great oil fields near Tampico on the Atlantic coast came to be a centre of contention. American interests in that neighborhood demanded protection and Rear Admiral Henry T. Mayo was sent there hastily with a small force, among which was the despatch boat *Dolphin*.

There was no outbreak until the morning of April 9, 1914, when the paymaster of the *Dolphin* and seven men were sent ashore to buy some gasoline for use on the *Dolphin*. Their whaleboat flew the American flag, as was proper. As soon as the boat reached shore a military officer of the Huerta government arrested the entire force and took them to jail, on the pretext that they had invaded Mexican soil flying a foreign flag. Rear Admiral Mayo at once demanded the release of the men and furthermore demanded a written apology and a salute to the United States' flag within twenty-four hours. Later he extended the time for the salute for another twenty-four hours. He agreed to salute the Mexican flag

after ours had been saluted. This demand was refused indignantly by the Huerta government. Mayo reported what he had done to Washington and President Wilson backed up Mayo's demands. After three or four days' negotiations the Huerta government agreed to a simultaneous salute of both flags, but no further would it go. President Wilson finally fixed a definite date for the Mexican salute to our flag and threatened force if it were not given.

Huerta scornfully let the hour go by. Rear Admiral Frank F. Fletcher was ordered to Vera Cruz with a division consisting of the Prairie, Chester and San Francisco, all cruisers, and the battle ships Florida and Utah. He had several smaller vessels with him. Orders were also hurried to Rear Admiral Charles J. Badger, in command of the Atlantic Fleet and then in West Indian waters, to hurry to Fletcher's assistance. Fletcher and Badger were told to take possession of the custom house and the port and to hold them until an army force could be sent from Galveston to relieve them from shore duty. Fletcher, in sole command until Badger should arrive, tried to find the officials of the port and city but they disappeared. He gave notice that he would land his men at a certain time. He warned the commander of the Fort San Juan d'Ulloa not to fire on his ships. A force of several thousand Mexican

troops had been held in the city, but they were withdrawn gradually to the suburbs.

Fletcher did not want to bombard the town. He sent 1,300 sailors and marines ashore on the afternoon of April 21st and street fighting began at once. Street after street was cleared. The ships also fired at the naval academy and other buildings from which shots were being fired at our men. By nightfall the sailors and marines had possession of the parks, the open spaces of the town and the chief streets. Desultory shooting kept up through the night and soon after midnight, on the morning of April 22d, Admiral Badger arrived with his fleet of battle ships, several hours before he was expected. In the fleet were the battle ships Arkansas, Delaware, Kansas, New Hampshire, South Carolina, Michigan and New Jersey. Other battle ships were hurried from naval stations in the United States.

Fletcher at 2.30 in the morning reported to Badger what had been done, and at daylight nearly 6,000 more men were landed from the ships. Many of these units went into action and there were lively exchanges of shots in the streets up to eleven o'clock in the morning, when the naval force was in undisputed possession of the town, and the Mexican force had fled several miles out into the country.

The dead and wounded were cared for, and later the American dead were sent to the United States,

where a great public funeral was held in the New York navy yard in Brooklyn on May 12. President Wilson made the chief address at the funeral, and in his speech he said:

"We have gone down to Mexico to serve mankind if we can find the way." Evidently the United States did not find a way, for at this writing, late in August, 1915, Mexico is still in a state of revolution and President Wilson has just called a conference of North, Central and South American diplomats to find the way of restoring peace to poor Mexico. As has been said, the "Expeditionary Force" failed completely in its purpose to require a salute from anyone in authority in Mexico to our flag for the insult in Tampico. The prevailing belief in the United States was that the demand for a salute was merely a pretext for interference by our country, in the hope of driving Huerta out and restoring peace. To have required a salute would probably have brought on war on an extended scale, and this President Wilson was determined not to have if he could prevent it. He gave up the idea when the entire military and naval force was brought home in November and Vera Cruz was given back to the Mexicans. The menace of further war on our part compelled Huerta to quit Mexico, and in that respect President Wilson's "expedition" was a success.

A notable event in the naval history of the world,

although in no way connected with war or the immediate prospect of any war, was the despatch of the United States Atlantic Fleet around the world, the start being made on December 16, 1907. The fleet returned on Feb. 22, 1909, to Hampton Roads, from which it started. The cruise attracted the attention of the world. The fleet consisted of sixteen battle ships. Fourteen of the ships made the entire cruise. Two of the original sixteen were detached at San Francisco, after making the journey around South America, and two others took their places for the return to the Atlantic through the Mediterranean.

No nation had ever made such a naval demonstration. President Theodore Roosevelt, who once was Assistant Secretary of the Navy and who was always an advocate of a strong navy, ordered the cruise. He never made public his reasons for the showy display. There were many misgivings over leaving the Atlantic coast unprotected, and many nations were much concerned over the meaning of the trip.

The cruise was a revelation of latent power to the other nations. It displayed the flag with the emblems of power in every continent, and on every sea. Instead of evoking hostile criticism the journey resolved itself into a manifestation of friendship by other nations. The ovations to the American officers and sailors increased as the fleet

made its progress from country to country. Brazil, Chile and Peru showed the warmest kind of hospitality. Then came a visit to New Zealand and Australia, where the demonstrations were most exuberant. Japan gave most cordial greetings, and China added its expression of welcome. Various countries bordering on the Mediterranean joined in the acclaim, and when the Fleet was welcomed home by President Roosevelt, he made a speech of five words, saying:

“ You have done the trick.”

No further explanation could be obtained from the President as to the motives which inspired this stirring procession of warships carrying the American flag around the entire world.

The Fleet steamed about 46,000 miles. It was reviewed by four presidents: Roosevelt of the United States, Penna of Brazil, Montt of Chile and Pardo of Peru. The Emperor of Japan entertained the leading officers at luncheon. Prince Lang of China was also host to part of the Fleet at Amoy. The Khedive of Egypt also entertained a group of officers at Cairo. The King and Queen of Greece dined on one of the battle ships, and the King of Italy received Admiral Sperry and staff in Rome.

Rear Admiral Robley D. Evans was in command of the Fleet on the trip from Hampton Roads to San Francisco, where, owing to ill health, he was de-

tached. Rear Admiral Charles M. Thomas succeeded him for five days only, and then Rear Admiral Charles S. Sperry took command for the rest of the journey.

The period from 1898, when the Spanish War ended, until the present writing, 1915, has been one of great development and of preparation for war by the American navy. Although the Atlantic Fleet destroyed the Spanish ships off Cuba in 1898, that short conflict and the battle that Dewey had with the Spaniards in Manila Bay, disclosed that not only was there great need for a real navy but for better marksmanship. At once the naval authorities began an agitation for more and larger battle ships, and for money to provide target shooting on an extensive scale twice a year. The plan was adopted of adding at least one battle ship a year, but generally two, until by 1910 the United States navy was ranked third in the naval strength of the nations, Great Britain and Germany alone exceeding it. At times since then it has been asserted that the United States has passed Germany in naval power, but this has always been a question of doubt. The fact is the navies of Germany and the United States, both of which have grown rapidly in the last fifteen years, have been about equal in strength. In skill in shooting, however, the United States has surpassed the records of all others, according to target practice statistics.

There are 5,000 officers and about 55,000 men in round numbers on the roster of the United States navy. Great Britain has a naval rule that her power on the sea must be equal to that of the two next strongest naval powers. According to the latest figures the British navy in high-powered ships consists of 76 battle ships and 44 armored cruisers, built or building. Germany has 40 battle ships and 17 armored cruisers built or building, and the United States has 40 battle ships and 11 armored cruisers, built or building. Each navy has a corresponding list of unarmored cruisers, destroyers, torpedo boats and submarines with auxiliaries of various kinds. The life of a battle ship is rarely longer than ten years. All of the battle ships of Sampson's Fleet at Santiago in 1898 were out of date before the great cruise of the Atlantic Fleet around the world began in 1907, and the cost of a battle ship has risen from about \$5,000,000, when the Oregon was built, to nearly \$15,000,000. In the spring of 1915 the United States launched the most powerful battle ship afloat in the Arizona of 30,000 tons, as compared with 10,000 tons of the Oregon, or the 16,000 tons of the Connecticut, the flagship of the American Fleet on the big cruise.

In one respect the United States Fleet has lagged woefully behind those of Great Britain and Germany. That has been, the development of tor-

pedo destroyers and submarines. In aviation also has our country been far behind those two nations, although Congress recently appropriated \$1,000,000 for aviation experiments for the navy. The submarine, which has focussed the attention of the world by its feats of daring and great destruction, especially by the Germans, in the Great European War now going on, was originally an American invention. Bushnell tried successfully such a boat in New York harbor just before the Revolutionary War. Afterward Robert Fulton tried to induce England and France to take up the invention without success. Napoleon watched one perform successfully in Paris, but he and all the other military authorities of Europe frowned on the use of such war implements on the ground that they were inhuman and would produce cowardly warfare. What would they say if they could read the history of naval warfare of to-day?

The foregoing pages tell of an attempt to make use of the submarine principle in the Civil War. It was not a success. In the early eighties a New Jersey school teacher, named Holland, brought a better perfected submarine to the attention of our government. Our naval men looked askance at it. It was made on the principle that now governs submarines: fuel combustion while running on the surface and electrical power for running while sub-

merged. No less than three of our naval boards reported against accepting it. Finally with great reluctance our navy adopted the boat.

Other countries, notably England, France and Germany, also experimented with the Holland and similar designs and made great headway in building them. Not until the Great European War did they have a fair trial. Japan ordered three or four from this country when at war with Russia, but they arrived too late to be of service. Germany's raids in 1915 on English commerce and on English warships revealed their great use and tremendous power. The sinking of the great English transatlantic liner Lusitania, in the spring of 1915, sent a thrill of horror around the world. A great American engine of war, the submarine, then came into its own as a terrible agent of destruction, and, as a result, the submarine and the flying machine, also of American origin, bid fair to revolutionize the science of warfare.



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